THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

DECEMBER 15, 1926

Wisconsin—a Splendid Nuisance

By Marion Clinch Calkins

A Statistical David

By Haven Emerson, M.D.

Teachers' Budgets

Labor Goes in for Research

Laying the Ghost of State Medicine

The New Church in the Country

The Volunteer Social Worker

Company Unions

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The Use of Leisure

Harmon-Survey Quarterly Awards

First Prize, $250, An Adventure in Play, by Irene Mott, lately of Nagpur, India, now of Montclair, N. J.

Second Prize, $100, Singing Mothers by Ivah Everett Deering, San Diego, California

Third Prize, $50, A Busy Family Plays, by Frances Sage Bradley, M.D., Andrews, Cherokee County, N. C.

Honorable Mention: Mother Cuts Loose in Camp, by Mrs. Ethel Johnston Lively, Columbus, Ohio; How Milwaukee Grown-Ups Play, by Weaver W. Pangburn, Upper Montclair, N. J.

PLAY in India, play in Southern California, play in the mountains of North Carolina—three adventures in the use of leisure, literally "scattered over the world," win the three prizes in the second Harmon-Survey Quarterly Award for "the most interesting thing you know about Play for Grown-Ups."

The first prize story, which will appear in the January issue of Survey Graphic, is an account of how an American health missionary in a low caste Indian village failed with schools, lectures, and even baby shows, until the native women themselves suggested that *pan suparis*, games and stories were the needs of their weary, drudging lives. Irene Mott, who writes it, went to Nagpur in the central provinces of India, immediately after her graduation from Vassar in 1922, to act as volunteer welfare worker in the Empress Cotton Mills. The mills draw their workers from villages as well as the city, and all except the foremen are outcasts. There had been some welfare work among male employes, but Miss Mott was the pioneer among the women and children. The mill owners are Parsees, who are trying various experiments through which they hope that some of the evils of the western industrial world may be avoided by the manufacturers of India. Miss Mott is now studying at Columbia University, and expects to return to India.

IVAH EVERETT DEERING, "singing mother" of two daughters, twelve and six, and active in the Parent-Teachers' Association of southern California, writes about a group of seven San Diego neighbors who for three years have played together through music in the Spinet Neighborhood Chorus, beginning at a benefit P. T. A. program as "a short turn . . . in blackface, semi-minstrel make-up to offset deficiencies in tone and finish," and continuing to "a place where the attention of musical people has been attracted." It is the story of the effect on individual lives of the creative use of leisure.

FROM the mountains of North Carolina Frances Sage Bradley, M.D., sends the story of how a busy family at play not only had a joyous vacation but brought new ways and new viewpoints to an entire community.

The contest manuscripts came from thirty-four states. There were philosophical discussions of the uses of play. There were accounts of digging in flower gardens, of climbing mountains afoot and on donkeys, of community theatres, of farmers' wives in summer camps. To read them was to feel that the value as well as the joy of play for grown ups is beginning to make itself felt in the hurry and the "pressing practical affairs" of modern American life.

The contest judges, of whose effective cooperation The Survey and the Harmon Foundation make grateful acknowledgement, were Robert Sterling Yard of the National Parks Association; Walter W. Pettit of the New York School of Social Work; Professor Robert E. Park of the University of Chicago; Joseph Lee of the Playground and Recreation Association; Geddes Smith, formerly managing editor of The Survey, now on the staff of the Child Health Demonstration.

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JULIAN W. MACK, V. EVERIT MACY, ROBERT HALLOWELL
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For Three current Harmon-Survey Awards—Open Until December 31—See the Back Cover of This Issue

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The Gist of It

A RECENT visitor from Geneva bore witness that the industrial program of Wisconsin is known, watched and envied at the International Labor Office. A dinner at which organized labor, organized manufacturers, organized women voters and state officials reviewed the position of the state and of how it got that way furnished the text for **Marion Clinch Calkins,** an instructor at the state university and a former member of The Survey staff. Miss Calkins can be spirited and gay on any subject, including working permits. Page 357. **Maude McClave Brown,** formerly a visiting nurse, is a resident of Bay Village, Ohio. Page 360.

ROBERT W. McCULLOCH, associate editorial secretary of the Institute of Social and Religious Research, is the author of New Light on the Rural Situation in The Survey of June 15. Page 369. **Victor H. Lawn** is an associate of Andrew J. Thomas, the architect whose work is here described. Page 371.

ROBERT W. BRUÈRE is an associate editor of The Survey. His discussion here of organized labor and the company union (page 374) will be followed in the January Graphic by an illuminating consideration of men and machines. **Agnes E. Benedict,** until recently director of the research department of the National Child Labor Committee and editor of the American Child, is now preparing a series of publications for the Public Education Association. Page 376. **Gertrude R. Stein,** of the New York State Bureau of Rehabilitation, is soon to open her own employment bureau. Page 377. **Keith Hutchinson,** formerly of the Independent Labor Party Information Committee, is the author of Labor in Politics. Page 374.

BEATRICE ENSOR, principal of Frensham Heights School, Surrey, one of the most famous of England's experimental schools, is also chairman of the New Education Fellowship and editor of The New Era. She spent some months in this country last winter, lecturing on the new education abroad, and studying American experimental schools. Page 380. **Adolphe Ferrière,** director of the Bureau International des Ecoles Rouvelles in Geneva, is the author of several books on progressive education. Page 381. Since her graduation from the Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburgh in 1925, **Fern Babcock** has been general secretary of the Y.W.C.A. at the University of Arkansas. Page 383. **Ruth Gillette Hardy,** head of the economics department at the Girls Commercial High School in Brooklyn, has been for some weeks one of the storm centers in the free speech fight in the New York public schools. Page 384.

DR. HAVEN EMERSON is an associate editor of The Survey. Page 386. **Wendell F. Johnson** is director of the Social Service Federation of Toledo. Page 387. **Margaret Whittier** (Mrs. S. B. Whittier), awarded second prize in the Harmon-Survey contest on health, won her R.N. at the Children's Hospital in Boston, followed by post-graduate work at the Philadelphia General Hospital and at Teachers' College, New York. She lives now in Chattahoochie, Georgia, where she cleaned up the milk supply as a by-product of managing a family consisting of the assistant manager of the Whittier Mills, "a two-year-old son, three hunting dogs, seven hives of bees, about thirty hens and twelve ducks." Page 389.

ELLEN W. W. GEER (Mrs. Danforth Geer, Jr.) is president of the board of directors of the Association of Volunteers in Social Service. Page 392. **Gladys Sellew** is director of nursing service at the Babies and Children's Hospital of Cleveland. Page 393. **Mary Clarke Burnett** is head of the Department of Social Work at the Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh. Page 395. **Ralph G. Hurlin** is director of the Department of Statistics of the Russell Sage Foundation. Page 396.

W. H. LEFFINGWELL is a management specialist who here puts his long experience of office efficiency practice at the disposal of the social work executives. Page 403. **Arthur Dunham** is secretary of the Child Welfare Division of the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania and a member of The Survey's Committee on Administration. Page 405. **Elwood Street** is director of the St. Louis Community Council. Page 406.

IN the next issue of The Survey, **Miriam Van Waters** will describe Nineteen Ways of Being a Bad Parent.

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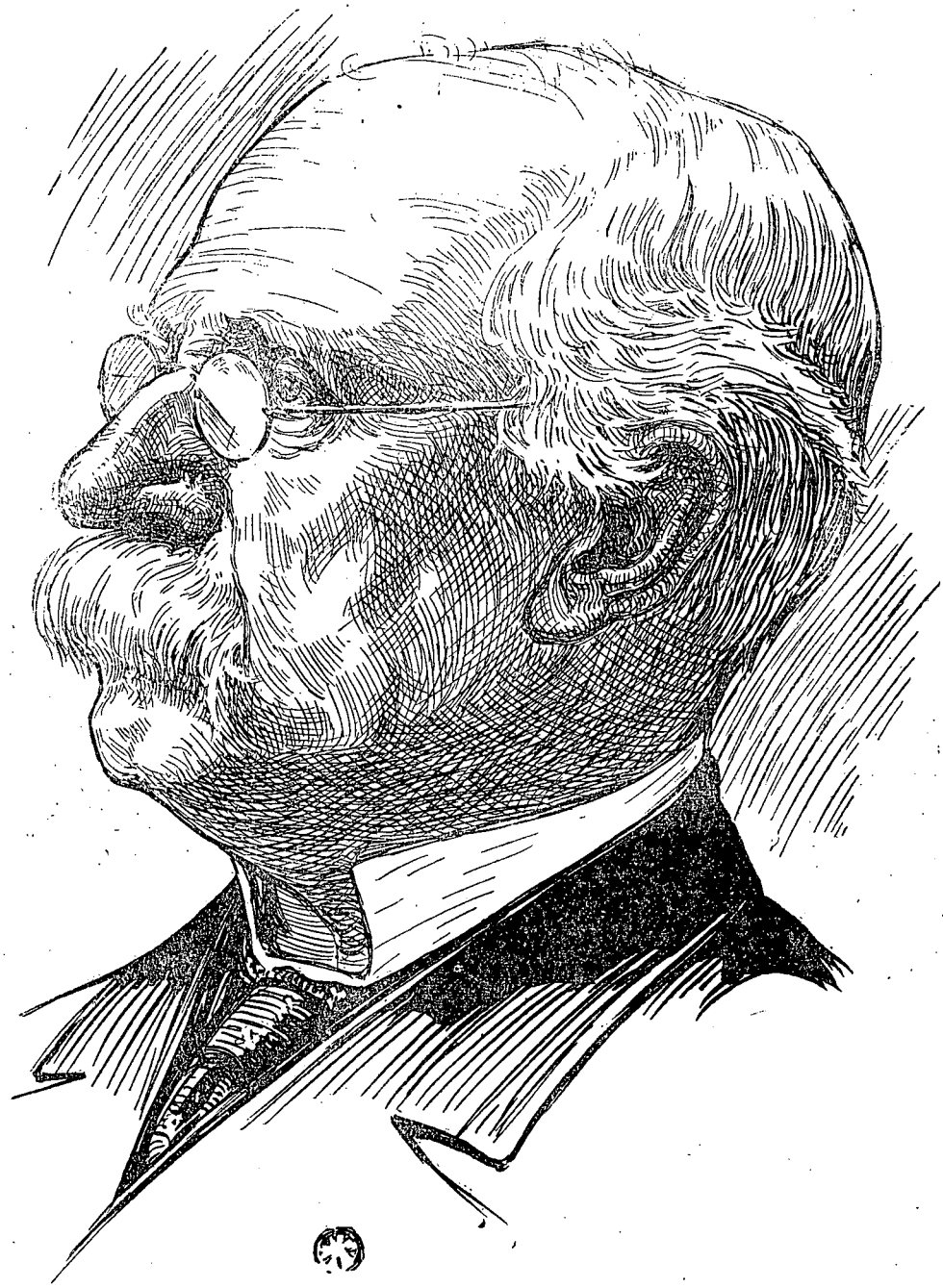

DEAN OF THE SOCIAL WORKERS

On his seventy-fifth birthday, December 14, Hastings H. Hart had been an active social worker for forty-eight and a half years. He is still hard at it. See page 364.

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Wisconsin—A Splendid Nuisance

By MARION CLINCH CALKINS

ON Friday evenings of the school year the Madison students of John R. Commons celebrate their leadership by having supper together, with Mr. Commons at the head of the board. Sometimes visitors speak, there are discussions; letters from the absent are read aloud, telling of work in the field, asking advice, drawing conclusions. Mr. Commons reads them with his funny drawl, slipping past the parts complimentary to him with little excuses. As a matter of fact the whole event is a tribute to him and rightly so. These students are being sent out to act as well as to study. Many of them meet only the most practical problems. To whom else should they turn in their quandaries and their discoveries than to the man whose academe has been the factory, the legislative chambers, the employer's office; whose theories may puzzle the intellectual, but whose practice has originated forms of labor legislation and administration widely copied and studied for their power and simplicity?

I went to Friday Night a week or so ago and heard there an announcement that seemed to me peculiarly relevant to the scene. There was to be held in Milwaukee a dinner of some importance. It was in fact a love feast, a celebration on the part of all combatants in a ten-year's struggle which has put Wisconsin in the front rank in protection of working women and children. It was stated that Wisconsin is the only state which has enacted into law the whole national program of the League of Women Voters. And an Englishman from the International Labor Office, who was present at Professor Commons', stated, not flatteringly but as a matter of common knowledge even in Geneva, that Wisconsin has solved many problems, particularly of administration, in advance of any other state.

So I went from Madison to Milwaukee. I attended the dinner, and perhaps contrary to my expectations was deeply impressed. Not so much by what I saw as by what was there recalled to me; of what seemed to me, when once I daily tramped its workers' blocks and viewed its fire-mouthed foundries, the largest city in the world. The people represented at the banquet had only wound a thread through its labyrinth. But what a path-finder had been that thread of social control, carried by the officers of the Industrial Commission, the continuation school, the other state and lay agencies for keeping the industrial gorgon (what if I mix my figures; I do not know them very well) at bay until it should have evolved, say, into a horse or lamb. The following day I visited these agencies, and I retramped the city blocks, and my story seems to have become, not a story of the banquet, but of what the banquet brought to memory and attention.

In Wisconsin we have nearly one million women and girls over ten years of age. Of these, 182,000 are wage-earners. Every woman's organization in the state worth its salt has been working on a legislative program to protect them. This banquet, largely attended by the service-workers from Milwaukee industrial establishments, summoned by Mrs. William Kittle, who has been brilliantly tireless in behalf of the program, was held during the convention of the Wisconsin League of Women Voters. It was no pause to consider accomplishment, but to plant the suggestion in the minds of the four—can we say contracting?—parties represented there, that in the future they get together before rather than after the struggle. The long fight had found them ranged variously around the bone. Now they had learned that the bone belonged to the state, which is to say, to them all. Why not decide that in the first place, and save half the barking?

There is in history a hearing on a child-labor bill in which the opposition was called for. A fine looking gentleman arose.

"But I called for opposition," said the chairman.

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"I oppose," was the answer.

"Will you tell us who you are and why you oppose?" asked the chairman.

"I represent the merchants and manufacturers of Wisconsin," said the gentleman. "I oppose on principle. I have not read the bill."

Yet, at a recent movement on the part of some isolated employers, said to be backed by some of the school people, to lower the age limit in the new law, letters arrived from merchants and manufacturers all over the state, protesting such a change from the present law which was proving already in more alert and responsible employes that the part-time school was profitable to industry. On the other hand, it is uncertain in the minds of some closest to the working of the law, what labor—not organized labor, but laborers everywhere, would do if the question were referred to them, in this transitional period, when they feel the brunt of the law, not its benefits. It is easier to look behind than ahead. When Mr. Commons went upon the floor of the legislative chamber in behalf of his bill for unemployment compensation, which is to come up again this winter, he was applauded from the galleries by labor. He acknowledged it and said: "I am ashamed to take your applause. This is a capitalistic bill. It is the same as that old workmen's compensation, which has proved so profitable to employers that nothing could induce them to take it off the books."

THESE four parties, who are thus bidden to come together on each question before they meet in legislative hearing, are: first, labor, with the Federation of Labor as its spokesman; second, employers, with the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association as their spokesman; third, administration, or the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, to whom most of the laws delegate large powers; and fourth, interested laymen, represented by various committees upon women in industry.

They have seen in their time (and their time is fairly recent, the commission having been founded in 1911 and obtained its discretionary powers in 1913), night work prohibited for women in factories and laundries and an eight-hour restriction elsewhere; the working day reduced with few exceptions to nine hours with a week of 50 hours; a minimum wage law passed and declared unconstitutional, but a perhaps more workable substitute put in its place; they have seen machinery safeguarded and sanitary conditions improved in almost every place of employment. They have seen the employer enlightened; they have seen the employer seek his own enlightenment; the widespread adoption into large industry of the social worker, nurse and dietician, the recreation room and cafeteria; the downfall of the medical charlatan before the lists of approved company doctors.

But most interesting of all, they have seen such a huge change in the requirements of school attendance that it is hard for us to gauge its final importance, or even to see the tremendous drama inherent in it. A dozen or more years ago any child might leave Wisconsin schools forever after he had reached the fifth grade and few questions asked. Now, until he is eighteen years old, that is, if he lives in any one of forty cities where there are part-time schools, he must go to school one day a week. Until he is sixteen he must be in school half time. He may not leave school at all until he has completed the eighth grade or been in school for nine full years.

Since the time when we were suffused with shame to know that three hundred thousand of the Americans who went to war could only sign their name by mark, we have given little enough astonished regard to our illiteracy. There are as many illiterates over ten years of age in America as there are people in Denmark. Six per cent of the American population over ten years of age is illiterate, as over against the five one-hundredths of one per cent of German population. Moreover, our illiterates are home-grown, for immigrants have to read before they can get into the country. Wisconsin has fewer illiterates than any other state east of the Mississippi, but we have small reason for boasting at two and one-quarter per cent. Yet we spent over eleven million dollars for roads in 1926, as against, in the following year, about two million for vocational education. Everyone knows that there are many places to go on roads besides school. But so also are there many things to do after school besides ride round and round on roads. However, figures tell very little about education and we can gauge nothing of the quality of the teaching by the numbers of north windows.

It is true, these things aside, for the part-time schools were not organized to take care of illiteracy, that at the end of this period of legislative accomplishment since 1911, the state finds itself with a good deal to digest. The Industrial Commission, because of its close-knit organization, in spite of its inadequate staff (it has 131 employes to California's more generous 581), gives administration of a superb quality. It knows working conditions down to the most isolated parts of the state. The impartiality of its judgments is possible only because it is not a political body. It is said that any man who has ever been appointed to the commission for political reasons, and these appointments are carefully safeguarded, has at once forgotten, in the whelm of social waters, the political aspects of his career. So that now we have legislation that for the time is satisfactory and administration that is satisfactory, our whole problem seems to rest in the adjustment of the child to the new school system that has been set up for him, or rather of the school to the child.

I have talked to social workers in Milwaukee who are deeply depressed over the situation. The world's largest school devoted to workers is being built there. It is six stories high. It fronts four streets. Its floor space covers eighteeen acres. It is costing three and a half million dollars. But the problem of teaching in such an organization in a manner to arouse and hold the interest of factory boys and girls when there is a turnover, I am told, of four thousand pupils daily, is hard to grasp. I heard of one teacher, and she may be the rule, who had eight hundred pupils whom she met every week.

ONE encouraging feature of the vocational schools, however, has been put very neatly by Marjorie Johnson. That is the quality of the teaching of vocational subjects as against some of the teaching in the regular public schools. "The public school teachers have been exposed to their education. For a teacher of a trade, his education has had to *take*." This obviously can be true only of the few best schools. In cities of the second class there is complaint that there can be procured only teachers of the minimum normal train-

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ing requirement, and also for children whose mentality is often inferior, teachers should have especial equipment in psychology.

There has been a steady diminishing of children in industry with the steady raising of the working age by law. Yet a comparison of their numbers with pre-war numbers makes it evident that much of the diminuendo is accounted for by economic conditions, the power of the market to absorb their services. Even so, it is estimated that a repeal of the law would instantly displace the more expensive male labor with a flood of cheaper children. But employers, except where their whole industry, as in the candy factories, is based upon this lighter labor and lower wage, do not care to burden themselves with this responsibility before the law. In consequence of these two things there are many children attending school part-time who are in idleness upon the streets for the rest of the week. It is only fair to remember, however, that before this school regime and the fixation of seventeen years as permit-age, they would either have been on the street all of the time or have been absorbed forever into a premature adulthood. "It makes them flighty," say some employers. But who wants youth to be anything but flighty, and who among the thoughtful ever deplored the high labor turnover among the very young?

A second consequence of this part-time compulsory contact with the school is much more cheering. That is in the increasing numbers who voluntarily enroll full time, or having steadily resisted the compulsion until they are eighteen, turn straight about and enter night school of their own free-will, having meantime been exposed to the self-dissatisfaction of others in ignorance. Over half of the vocational school enrollment is voluntary. Education is a very insidious vice. Moreover to those to whom it will never in itself be tempting, it will become a custom, like going to the second grade or washing behind the ears. When these young animals that are herded into class from trade and industry for a day a week, have children of their own, they will regard late schooling as, at worst, the least of troubles.

THERE are two experiments within the system that are usually regarded as being of quite opposite trend and not expressive of the same society. One is the apprentice system. In Wisconsin there is a fast growing body of apprentices, nearly 2,800 of them. About 1,400 have completed their course. Contrary to the custom elsewhere as I know it, the state is a party to the contract. The success of the scheme, apart from the virtue inherent in it, is due to the evangelism of the apprentice officers who are making it clear to employers that if they adhere too closely to the specializing processes they will be without competent foremen and managers. These boys are also, of course, apprentices in the trades outside of factories. Often when apprenticeship is mentioned elsewhere the feeling is that it is useless to try to stem the tide of mechanical life; that it is better to adopt the English view of training, not for interesting jobs, but for leisure. And here is where the second experiment comes in.

The vocational school in Madison at least, and presumably in the other cities, is stealthily inserting a little learning for sweet pleasure's sake. The boys who once fought like little devils to escape commercial geography (the school could think of no other name to cover general culture) now go like lambs and gambol through the diverting fields of opinion—on labor unions, evolution, or any other field in which they choose to state their dogma. Progress is from that point forward. They have, fortunately, a teacher who can meet them in every phase of their social experience, having herself worked in some forty factories. This is Marjorie Daw Johnson, widely known to social workers. I attended one of these extraordinary sessions this week, in which there was a debate on labor unions. A young butcher was the most illuminating. He told all about vegetable inks. His father had taken the headlines the night before for bootlegging.

Then there are band-practices, music lessons, and plays. Rumor had it that stenographers-to-be, who had eschewed henceforth, from the eighth grade on, so help them, never to read in a book again, had publicly confessed to enjoying the reading of Midsummer Night's Dream. But that was in the Spring.

But to return to the banquet from which I have gone far afield. Little was said or done that would reveal the drama of the moment. To be sure, the speakers did well, but they had an audience already informed. Of history there was nothing to say. No one of the guests at the banquet had seen Elysian flowers bloom at his feet in the vaunted ten years of legislative progress. Worse, no one ever expected to see them on his earthly pilgrimage to a workers' paradise. That is the curious anomaly of social workers. They are the most disenchanted of all humans and yet the most optimistic. Despair can greet them at the top of every flight and still they keep on climbing.

The drama, for indeed it was a dramatic moment for the state, seemed like an echo of a play off-stage. In this banquet room, at this hour, after the factory day was over, nothing that these people could have said or done, though it were pleasing and festively dramatic as any banquet scene should be and rarely is except in Veronese, could have dispelled from my mind the image of what they were: representatives of an amorphous human race, struggling for a vital structure; a race of men so near alike that they could be classified a dozen different ways upon the fingers of one hand and yet whose lives are lived alone, singly, imperviously private; who band together for the general good but count their needs exceptional; who struggle against each other in the general raffle and find the cherished bag is stuffed with straw; to whose clock of discontent no hand of legislation can ever put a stop.

And still I found the banquet impressive. For though the cynic in any of us may see that our social problems but lose one shape to take another; that were things finally so arranged that every worker might lie down upon a bed of ease it would not float his spirit into peace, still the practical idealist in every man finds it in him to rejoice at each inch gained upon fatigue and hunger. This seems to be based upon our inherent weakness to the exception, the specific case, for while one can be philosophical about the cold on Mars, or even in Siberia, one is no longer called a philosopher who lets a kitten freeze upon his doorstep. All social legislation has to be vivified by the brilliant personal image.

YESTERDAY I went into the office of Taylor Frye, assistant to the Industrial Commission. To him is delegated an administrative authority over the working children of the state great enough so that he could cripple any recalcitrant

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industry dependent upon their services. He has been years at this post. He has no fight with the employers, most of whom work well above the law and never come in contact with its minimum. One could expect that he, above all people in the state, might see the law and its results in graphs and curves, or worse, a flaccid thing upon the books. But it is no depersonalization of the law that made his face into a Gothic carving. He told me stories such as every social worker knows, each one of which might well have kept him going all these years. But I knew that these were not the single, stock stories; that they were supported by thousands drawn from his experience which had built for him a living structure of the law.

Few are the people who tell you of the results of protective legislation in statistics. "I know of a case," they say, or, "Take for instance." It is the number of one's specific cases that determines the generosity of his outlook; determines whether he stops with the kitten on the doorstep or has embraced within his view the children across the tracks. Not only the hostility to the law, but willing compliance to it are based upon the feeling for the special case. "You know yourself that a great strapping boy like him ought to be working," or another, very favorite, "Now when I was a boy I was helping my father in the fields before my hands were big enough to milk. Do I look any the worse for it?" He looks complacently at the rich earth rolling swiftly by him. Perhaps all the happy experience of such a man's prospering life goes but to cement into his social structure this corner-stone of his experience and belief. There may be statistics on the numbers of strong boys who have labored happily in the corn-fields as against those who have labored perforce in the cotton and the beets. The discrepancy would not necessarily be of importance. It would be that one of these worlds excludes the other, and that, for better for worse, these men are made for life.

An illustration of this once came before the Commission. Moral conditions in a certain factory dependent upon the work of children were such that the commission refused to issue further permits to the management and threatened to revoke those already active. The manager was summoned, a harrassed and compliant man whose troubles he proved to have arisen in matters temporarily beyond his control. He was accompanied by his lawyer, a white-haired man who opened his speech to the Commission as follows: "I should not be here today if I thought my client were in any way opposing the orders of the (*Continued on page* 409)

Marika: A Kindergarten Cast-Off

By MAUDE McCLAVE BROWN

I MET Marika (pronounced like paprika,) dolefully emerging from the gate of the school yard used by the kindergarten children. The time was Monday morning and the occasion the first day of school. Marika's short, squat little figure, the length of her plaid cotton skirt, as well as the dark oval that was her face, set her apart indubitably as a foreign child. Marika was, however, far from foreign to me. I shifted my nurse's bag and held out my hand, and Marika moved to my side with as much dispatch as grief and wounded dignity would permit in a Grecian woman.

I have known Marika well for five years, ever since that bitter morning when I induced her, by means of smart slaps of my hand and repeated alternate immersions in hot and cold water, to draw her first breath in our sooty, slummy world. Had I not also presided over the whole period of her infancy, imparted to her old-world mother the beguiling art of boiling bottles, and instructed her in the superior merits of milk, as an article of infant diet, over Turkish coffee? Had I not nursed her through pneumonia after measles, and irrigated her discharging ear after whooping cough? Had I not weighed and measured her monthly at the Settlement clinic, had I not rejoiced as her oval face grew ruddier, and did I not love the grave seriousness of her small nature, so mature and matronly at the meager age of five?

"Marika, dear, what's the trouble?" I asked as we walked hand in hand down Main Street. "Didn't you start to school this morning?"

"The teacher," Marika replied, lifting a countenance of unutterable anguish, "she will not have me."

"Will not have you?" Mentally I dedicated to outer darkness the kindergartner who would not, at first glance, gather Marika to her bosom.

"She say," continued Marika, "she say I not know nothing. She say I not years enough old."

"Aren't you five, dear? Can't you start to kindergarten when you are five?"

"It is not my birthday till Friday," wailed the child. "She say I not years enough. She say I not know nothing."

"Oh, Marika, dear," I said, holding the dark little hand close. "Your birthday isn't till Friday, and so the teacher will not let you begin kindergarten. Won't she let you start next Monday?"

"No, she say, 'too many children.' She say, 'not till next year.' She say I not years enough, she say I not know nothing."

With Marika a little runlet of quiet tears, I made my way down Main Street into the foreign quarter. I wondered how I could minister to mental anguish such as hers. Remembering that she could speak Greek, I sought to divert her mind by having her interpret for me at the home of an Athenian patient. Behind the Pan-Hellenic Pool Room, in a very briefly "furnished" room, lay old Mrs. Paleologos, babbling in her own tongue, perhaps of far-off purple mountains and violets crowning ruined heights.

"Ask her, Marika, how she is today."

"Pohs eesthey, Paraskeue?" said Marika, standing close to the bed, and peering, like Red Riding Hood, into the grandmotherly old Greek face. An ancient hand, brown as wrapping paper, reached out to touch the child's head, and the symptoms and advice flowed back and forth among us, Greek and English, English and Greek, in a steady triologue. Beyond us, in the Pool Room, the balls cracked ceaselessly together, separated, and rolled smoothly to the cushion. The players were Greeks who had exchanged their ancient birthright of manly games in the stadium for the

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cigarette-laden air, the cards, the punch-boards and poker-sheets of the Pool Room.

When our errand with Mrs. Paraskeue Paleologos was ended and we were again on Main Street, I bethought me of Rubitza Reichovitch, my bed-ridden Serbian patient.

"If you will come in here with me, Marika, while I see Mrs. Reichovitch, I will go on down to the Settlement and take you home."

AS Marika stolidly complied and we entered Rubitza's bare and spotless kitchen, I remembered that Savo and Dorinka, the children of the house, would be at school, and I would have no interpreter.

"We won't stop here after all, Marika," I said, turning. "I can't speak Mrs. Reichovitch's language. I will come again when school is out."

Marika eyed me gravely, and moved unperturbed toward the front room, where she knew the patient would be lying, on a bright and brassy bed.

"I speak for you, she speak our language, too."

"No, dear, she is not Greek, she is Serbian."

"I not speak Greek to her," Marika patiently explained. "I speak Serbian to her. My father, he Serbian. He teach it me. I speak for you."

When I had greeted my patient with the smiles and pillow-shakings which a nurse can administer in all languages, Marika assumed her best feather-bedside manner and asked at my bidding,

"Dalsi oosala medetzina? Have you taken your medicine?"

So the interpreting progressed, until we said *"Sboggom,* Goodbye," and emerged again upon Main Street.

Then I remembered that Marika's mother had originally come to America with the praiseworthy purpose of teaching Greek in the public schools. Finding the call for this language languishing, in both the lower and the higher grades, she had done "ye nexte best thinge" for herself and married the Serbian boarder in her sister's home.

"How splendid, Marika, that you can speak both Greek and Serbian. You speak them so prettily, too, and interpret beautifully."

But Marika's mind had reverted to her early morning miseries and she repeated to me, quite irrelevantly, the words of the teacher.

"She say I not know nothing. She say I not years enough old."

"Now, Marika, one more stop and we will be home. Victoria Sturia, here over the Rumanian grocery, has to be told about the application for her baby's side. Pete will be here and he can talk to her."

But when we had penetrated the doubtful regions above the grocery, we found Pete temporarily absent. Victoria, preparing egg-plant for dinner, smiled and set a chair, but looked with vacancy and vacuity at my sign language about the compresses.

"They must be *hot,"* said I, pointing in despair to the stove which was out. As I rose to light a fire, heat water, and demonstrate the mystery of the applications, Marika was suddenly at my side. Pointing to the water and the cloth she said quickly,

"Kalt!"

Comprehension awoke on the face of Victoria.

"Oh no," said I hurriedly, mistaking Marika's word for German, "they mustn't be cold, they must be hot."

Marika stood her ground gravely.

"Kalt!" said Marika.

"Hot!" said I.

"Kalt," translated Marika, manfully.

"Hot," I replied, in useless repetition.

At this sorry juncture the belated Pete appeared, tossed Marika aloft and asked me the difficulty.

"I am trying to tell Victoria to use hot cloths on the baby, and I cannot make her understand the word 'hot'."

"Kalt," repeated Pete, grinning toothily at his wife, and pointing to the water.

"But doesn't *'kalt'* mean cold?" I asked in desperation.

Pete laughed and explained.

"In German, yes, *'kalt'* is cold, but in Rumanian, no, it is hot. In old country once a German fellow he drive sick Rumanian woman to doctor. It miles and miles, and it winter. She have fever. She lie in wagon, and she cry to him, *'Kalt, kalt!'* He think she cold, so he take blanket and cover her. They drive 'long, she say *'Kalt, kalt!'* He take horse blanket, he cover her. They drive 'long, she say *'Kalt, kalt!'* again. He take off coat and put on her. She fight him and scream, *'Kalt, kalt!'* He have no more, he drive fast to doctor. When he get there, she all—what you call it?—sweat. She better. But she so mad she knock that German fellow for a cuckoo. *She* say she was *hot,* and German fellow he think she say she *cold."*

Overwhelmed by this linguistic curiosity, I departed with Marika's hand in mine. At the foot of the dark stairs I suddenly turned to my small companion.

"Marika," I demanded, "How in the round world did *you* know the Rumanian word for 'hot'?"

Marika looked up gravely as ever.

"Our boarder, he Rumanian. He teach me talk like his little girl in old country. He like me have language like his little girl."

"Well," said I slowly, "Greek, and Serbian, and Rumanian. Rumanian, and Serbian, and Greek."

"She say," responded Marika reminiscently, "I not know nothing."

WHEN I led Marika to the corner of her alley, I stopped and addressed her. I used the language and I assumed the mien which we retain for our high-born and high-brow friends.

"Marika," said I, "since the Child Labor Amendment seems irrevocably lost, and since ladies of youth and leisure can now lawfully earn their bread by their brawn or their brains, I shall not hesitate to recommend you for the post of Official Interpreter in the Hellenic, Slavonic, and Italic tongues, in the Probate, Juvenile and Domestic Relations Courts of this city.

"Weep not, oh Maiden, because the portals of the kindergarten are closed against you. Grieve not that you cannot sit in a circle and sew a wool seam. I, from the lowly foothills of a college education and hospital training, salute you upon your far linguistic height."

The little girl's eyes were puzzled.

"I mean, dear," I hesitated to interpret myself, "If you can't go to school you can go with me to the sick people and talk to them for me."

"She say I not know nothing," Marika insisted doubtfully. And then, as she grasped my suggestion, the comfort to her hurt pride made her tear-smeared little face glow. "Yes, yes—I know something—I help you make the sick ones well—Greek ones, Serbian ones, Rumanish ones. There is something that I know—Yes! yes! yes!"

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Graham Taylor Hall

AT the laying of the corner-stone of Graham Taylor Hall at the Chicago Theological Seminary on November 18, it was altogether fitting that there should be a tribute of glowing personal affection to one who has so unfailingly interpreted social problems in terms of human life; and that the breadth of his relationships in the community should have drawn to the gathering representatives of other faiths than those of the institution on whose faculty Professor Taylor has so long served. That breadth was signally marked by the address of greeting to Professor Taylor made by the Catholic mayor of Chicago and the presence of so prominent a Jewish citizen as Julius Rosenwald.

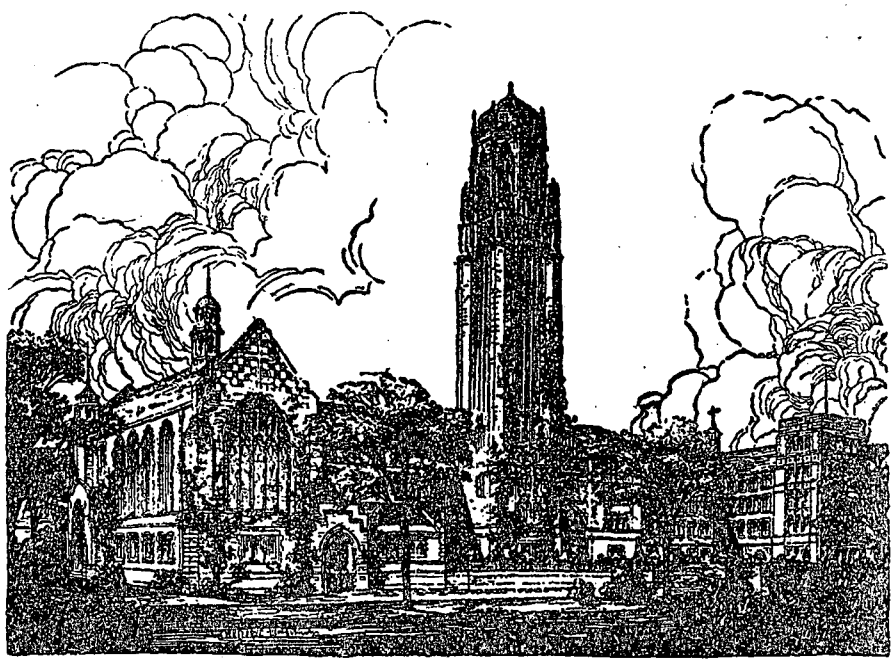
Mayor Dever spoke simply of what Chicago Commons and its founder had meant to the old seventeenth ward and to him personally; of how the people of that cosmopolitan neighborhood were brought together and given the opportunity to know each other; of the local spirit which arose to give a workingman's ward representation in the city council higher in devotion to public welfare than that sent by most of the so-called better wards; of the human touch that radiated throughout the neighborhood from the family life at the settlement, and he referred to the steady quiet influence of Mrs. Taylor in making the settlement a home center. Particularly he told how the friendship and counsel of Graham Taylor had helped him throughout his long career of public service beginning with his first candidacy and including five terms as alderman, two terms as judge, and nearly four years as mayor.

RARELY if ever, his friends who heard him feel, has Professor Taylor given finer expression of his spirit and his stirring democratic faith, than he did in his response. He referred to his inaugural address thirty-three years ago which marked the establishment of the first department of instruction in a theological seminary wholly devoted to the social interpretation and application of the Christian faith and hope. During all these years he had always been given full opportunity to carry out the practical purpose of the department, building upon "the experience in my rural and city ministries in which the salvation of the soul so increasingly involved the social salvation."

Referring to his determination "to teach from the ground up and not from the clouds down," he told how Chicago Commons was established as an observation center where students could come into first-hand contacts with the life of the city. The settlement was founded and "has ever been maintained in loyal allegiance to a democratic faith in all fellow men." He showed how his educational purpose has steadily been fulfilled not only in the classroom but "in the broader fellowships within the social, civic, industrial, political, racial and religious organizations of the neighborhood and the city at large."

"STANDING between these retrospects and far further prospects, and still taking my observation at Chicago Commons, where they appear to me in sharper outline, I now affirm that this democratic faith in fellow men, which I followed hither, falters not. No class consiousness of either class in conflict; no aristocracy of any claimants, except those who possess worth and attest it by service; no dictatorship, either beneficent or cruelly despotic, has ever caused me to waver a hair-breadth from my faith in the supremacy of the democratic order of government and social justice. That faith still stands undaunted and undimmed by any cynical default from democracy or any disclaimers of loyalty to social and religious ideals."

The assembly hall which bears the name of Graham Taylor was proposed some years ago by his former students who began raising funds for the purpose. The effort to bring the building project to success was led by President Ozora S. Davis who had been one of Professor Taylor's earliest students, and who spoke concerning the new buildings. These include also the Henry M. Hooker Hall, to house the library, the corner stone of which was also laid on November 18, and the great central tower which will bear the name of the Seminary's most generous benefactor, Victor F. Lawson. To the close association and friendship he had been privileged to have with Mr. Lawson through thirty-four years Professor Taylor feelingly alluded.



Graham Taylor Hall is at the left of the new buildings at Chicago Theological Seminary. In the center is the Victor F. Lawson Tower; between them, Henry M. Hooker Hall.

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The Common Welfare

THE congratulations which men and women from all walks of life poured in upon Justice Louis D. Brandeis on November 13, his seventieth birthday, bore witness to the esteem and affection in which they hold his gracious personality. Men honor Louis Brandeis the man because he is rarely gifted in leading them to honor what is best in themselves. In a world where the path of the good life is hard to find and to follow, he sees with prophetic clarity the things that are worth living for and shares his vision with eager and untiring generosity. Of the endless pilgrimages that pass through his austerely unadorned workroom in Washington there are few who fail to forget the eminent statesman and jurist in the presence of the brotherly counselor and friend.

But especially to members of the social work professions the warmth and universality of this birthday celebration must have had an enheartening historical significance. The perceptible shift in public sentiment toward Justice Brandeis, from an attitude which, when he entered the Supreme Court in 1916, viewed him as the protagonist of a radical minority to one which begins to regard him as the exponent of prevailing opinion, symbolizes the triumph of the essential method and spirit of the social work professions themselves. In the precursor of The Survey, in Charities and The Commons, for February 8, 1908, this paragraph appears: "In these days of sordid exploitation of working women it is a pleasure to chronicle an act of generous public service in their behalf."

SUCH is the appearance of Louis D. Brandeis before the Supreme Court of the United States as counsel for the state of Oregon, on January 15, in the case of Curt Muller vs. the State of Oregon. Mr. Brandeis gave his valuable service outright on behalf of the women who work for their living in factories, mechanical establishments and laundries." After epitomizing the case at bar the editors noted that this was the "first time that the question of the constitutionality of statutes restricting the working time of women has come before the highest court, although such a statute has been in force in Massachusetts since 1876." In the issue of July 4, 1908, the editors record the "unanimous decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, sustaining the Oregon law."

More significant than this verdict itself was the method by which the brief supporting the successful argument was prepared. Mr. Brandeis had undertaken the defense of the Oregon law on invitation of Florence Kelley and Josephine Goldmark within a few days of his fifty-first birthday. Under his direction, they made a comprehensive research into the industrial literature of the world dealing with the working hours of women and the effect of long hours upon their health. This investigation showed that the recorded facts of experience left no room for doubt that excessive working hours impaired the health of women and were accordingly against the public interest. This was the first of the now famous Goldmark briefs, prepared under the direction of Mr. Brandeis, through which the approach to human problems developed by social workers, from the relief visitor to the public health officer, has revolutionized the attitude of the courts and, through the courts, public opinion. In a brief appreciation of Justice Brandeis, Justice Learned Hand of the U. S. Circuit Court, has this to say on this matter:

FEW judges, few even great judges can point to specific results of their work. It goes into the fabric of the law, keeps the tissues alive, gathers up this nourishment, expels that waste, but effects no gross structural changes. Mr. Justice Brandeis is an exception; his influence is visible, in spite of, perhaps because of, the fact that his views have not always prevailed. It has been in two forms; I speak not of the general quality of his work, the insight, deftness and thoroughness of his craftsmanship, but of his personal contribution. First is the doctrine, often repeated, that the law can be successful only when founded upon patient inquiry into the economic and political facts from which alone safe generalization is possible. He will not admit the pretensions to universality of doctrines drawn from another social order, axiomatic, like most axioms, because they respond to prejudices too deep to tolerate question. In their stead he has insisted upon detailed research into the daily workings of large industry and of the Great Society. This may seem an obvious approach; in fact, it represents a diametrical departure from the last five decades of American law."

JUSTICE BRANDEIS has himself given classic expression to this approach, to the inwardness and wide currency of which the social work professions, and notably such inspired pioneers as Mrs. Kelley and Miss Goldmark, have so ardently contributed. As a souvenir of Louis D. Brandeis' seventieth birthday celebration, we print here for Survey readers a memorable paragraph from his dissenting opinion as a member of the supreme bench in the case of Truax v. Corrigan, 257 U. S.

"Whether a law enacted in the exercise of the police power is justly subject to the charge of being unreasonable or arbitrary, can ordinarily be determined only by a con-

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sideration of the contemporary conditions, social, industrial, and political, of the community to be affected thereby. Resort to such facts is necessary, among other things, in order to appreciate the evils sought to be remedied and the possible effects of the remedy proposed. Nearly all legislation involves a weighing of public needs as against private desires; and likewise a weighing of relative social values. Since government is not an exact science, prevailing public opinion concerning the evils and the remedy is among the important facts deserving consideration; particularly, when the public conviction is both deep-seated and widespread and has been reached after deliberation. What, at any particular time, is the paramount public need is, necessarily, largely a matter of judgment. Hence, in passing upon the validity of a law challenged as being unreasonable, aid may be derived from the experience of other countries and of the several states of our Union in which the common law and its conceptions of liberty and of property prevail. The history of the rules governing contests between employer and employed in the several English-speaking countries illustrates both the susceptibility of such rules to change and the variety of contemporary opinion as to what rules will best serve the public interest. The divergence of opinion in this difficult field of governmental action should admonish us not to declare a rule arbitrary and unreasonable merely because we are convinced that it is fraught with danger to the public weal, and thus to close the door to experiment within the law."

IT is difficult to realize that so vigorous a fighter in good causes far-flung over the face of the world as Louis Marshall has reached the psalmist's three score years and ten. Himself a Jew and eagerly helpful in all Jewish movements, his interests have known no bounds of race, creed or geography. Professionally he is an outstanding authority on constitutional law. But perhaps fewer men know of him as a constitutional lawyer than as an advocate of the underprivileged and of minorities both here and abroad whenever their human rights have been endangered by the power of dominating groups. It was Mr. Marshall who, as representative of the American Jewish Commission at the Versailles Peace Conference, was directly responsible for including in the various peace treaties the section guaranteeing minority national rights to the countries of eastern and southeastern Europe.

Since the beginning of the war he has been chairman of the American Jewish Relief Committee, one of the constituent bodies forming the Joint Distribution Committee which is now engaged in raising $25,000,000 to be expended during the next three years for the relief of suffering Jews in eastern Europe. The broad scale on which this work has been conceived and the efficiency with which it has been carried out among a people who have suffered more from peace than they did even from war, is in large part due to Mr. Marshall.

At the recent Chicago convention of the United Jewish Campaign, a correspondent of The Survey wrote: "If a conference of this high type can be said to have a high spot, for this conference it came with the masterful address of Louis Marshall of New York. He spoke of it as a sublimated Day of Atonement; he literally raised the assembled delegates to a new level of spirituality; all had glimpses of the infinite. No one who heard it can ever forget it."

WITH no candidate to oppose him, the recent re-election of Charles W. Hoffman as judge of the Court of Domestic Relations in Cincinnati was not only a foregone conclusion but a measure of the degree to which the juvenile court idea has been brought home to Hamilton county. Judge Hoffman was first elected in 1914 and opened the court on January 1, 1915. At the end of his term in 1920, he was re-elected by a majority of some 4,000 after one of the most intense political campaigns ever conducted in Cincinnati. As a Democrat, albeit a mild one, he was opposed by the ruling Republican organization, which felt that the office belonged to their party, and by the lawyers of the community, who were not in sympathy with his methods of hearing cases which are, of course, the accredited methods of all domestic relations courts. Now, at the end of another term, the Republicans put up no one to oppose him and the lawyers had been so won to his way of working that he received all but two out of 550 votes in a secret ballot of the bar preparatory to the endorsement of candidates for various judicial offices. On January 1 he will begin a third six-year term, evidently as solidly entrenched in the regard and affection of his community as he is among the social workers of the entire country.

AS this issue of The Survey goes into the mails, Hastings H. Hart is celebrating at once his seventy-fifth birthday and the achievement of enough years in social work to give one year to every state in the Union and have six months left over for the District of Columbia. A geographical measure of Dr. Hart's social service comes naturally when one realizes that his seven children are now living in six states, and that in a recent "progressive dinner party" in the course of a two-weeks' business trip, he was able to dine successively in eleven cities from New York to Chicago with twenty-seven members of his family connection.

Dr. Hart was graduated from Oberlin College in 1875 and from Andover Theological Seminary in 1880. After three years of home mission work on the Minnesota prairies, he became secretary to the Board of Corrections and Charities when it was established in that state in 1883. The board, which was bi-partisan in politics, acted like a jury; it postponed action unless its members were unanimous, and developed powerful influence because of the unprejudiced character of its actions and recommendations.

For fifteen years—until March 31, 1898—Dr. Hart devoted himself through the board to the interests of the wards of Minnesota—prisoners, the insane, feeble-minded children, and poor-house inmates. Then, wishing a more

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constructive field, he accepted the position of superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society in Chicago, which he held for exactly ten years, till March 31, 1908. This interest led to his appointment as director of the Department of Child-Helping of the Russell Sage Foundation, where he served for sixteen years. In 1914, Dr. Hart requested the Foundation to let him devote the remainder of his working years to the fields of delinquency and penology, saying:

"When I entered children's work twenty-six years ago there were almost no trained people in that field. If people were looking for a superintendent of an orphan asylum or a secretary of a children's aid society, a superannuated clergyman, a worn-out schoolmaster, a man who had failed in business and could not manage his own affairs, a good politician out of a job, or any good woman who loved children was considered a suitable candidate. Now there are hundreds of trained and competent people engaged in children's work, but today there are probably no more people vitally interested in the subjects of delinquency and penology, outside of those who are officially connected with those lines of work, than there were twenty-five years ago. There is an amazing indifference, ignorance, and misinformation on this subject and I should like to devote myself to this work until the time comes for me to be laid upon the shelf."

Dr. Hart's new title under the Russell Sage Foundation is consultant in delinquency and penology, and his advice is sought from all parts of the United States. His first detailed study in this field was to examine the unstandardized, little-known conditions under which federal prisoners are kept in county jails and local prisons.

IN some respects the conference on African missions and missionary policy recently held in Belgium under the auspices of the International Missionary Council, was the most significant conference of its sort ever convened. It represented the first international and interdenominational assembly of all of the agencies, educational and governmental, secular and religious, involved in the sadly disorganized and complicated African situation. Representatives of twenty-two American missionary boards and agencies, nineteen British, twenty Continental, and four African organizations met together with ninety-six active missionary workers, twenty-five representatives of educational and welfare foundations like the General Education Board, the Laura Spelman, the Phelps-Stokes, the Jeanes and Slater funds, and most significant of all perhaps, numerous semi-official representatives of the major European colonial governments, to discuss the general policies and principles of missionary evangelization and education.

The conference pivoted frankly on the obvious necessity for unity and a changed attack in missionary effort in view of the changing mind and attitude of the African native. "The problem of Africa is fundamentally a human problem"; "We are thus brought back to the relations between the races as an issue, likely to determine the future of Christianity in the African continent"; "The increasing acceptance of the policy of trusteeship and of the League of Nations mandate conception will bring as great a change to Africa as did the abolition of slavery"; "The whole *raison d'être* and success of colonial government is the development in health and body and equipment of mind and in morale of the African himself, the real wealth of the continent"—these encouraging declarations of basic principles are more important and significant than the concrete resolutions and recommendations of the numerous committees and sub-committees, painstaking and thorough though they were.

The outstanding fact is the achievement under the pressure of an imminent crisis of a newer and broader policy and philosophy of missionarism itself. That the official proceedings and recommendations of the conference so clearly reflect the advanced views of the notable special Africa Number of the International Review of Missions, edited by J. H. Oldham, suggests very definite inspiration from that enlightened source. However rudimentary the none too radical agreements of this first conference, the fact of the conference itself stands as a great victory for cooperative effort and enlightened council in a field handicapped in the past by sectarian cross-purposes and pious but unsound cultural presumption and bias.

Among the specific recommendations one may doubt the wisdom, even on the practical ground that the missions are now carrying 90 per cent of native common-school education, of releasing the colonial governments from special responsibility for providing secular facilities in this basic field, and notice as noteworthy the recommendation that "the American Negro should be permitted by governments and encouraged by missionary societies to play an increasingly important part in the evangelization and education of Africa." It is a fact not generally known that American Negroes have been made very unwelcome by many of the colonial governments and have been in many instances restricted in their right of entry, travel and independent missionary activity in the land of their fathers. It is good to see the moral weight of official missionary counsels thrown in favor of the increased employment of the most natural and possibly the most potentially effective agents of western culture in the so-called "dark continent."

AS both a democratic and an educational method of financing, the Christmas seal of the tuberculosis associations has not been surpassed. Once a year literally millions of little stamps carry a reminder of the associations' purpose to hundreds of thousands of people, and draw from them active financial support and the sense of joining in a social crusade. No further proof of the efficacy with which their support has been used is needed beyond the downward sweep of the tuberculosis rate. Whereas other social agencies may have eyed the method covetously, feeling that it would offer a reasonable solution of their financial problems, it has been left by a kind of gentleman's agreement to its first sponsors, though with the widening of the objectives of many local tuberculosis associations, part of the proceeds of the seal sale are now becoming available for health movements allied with tuberculosis.

Hence there was cause for more than local concern, when a few months ago thousands of letters plunged into the New

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York postoffice inviting their recipients to buy relief seals from an Association for the Relief of Tubercular Patients. The street was the same as that which held the offices of the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, though the number differed. The telephone exchange was the same, the letter head was similar, and the cross which ornamented the "relief seals" and a later series of Christmas seals, looked at first glance like the double-barred cross which has been used by the tuberculosis associations for twenty-five years, though closer examination revealed that it carried a third bar at the top. Inquiries made by confused contributors of the New York Tuberculosis Association brought an investigation.

The Association for the Relief of Tubercular Patients was incorporated on June 30, 1925, with $20,000 capital, not under the membership corporation law, like the social agencies, but under the business corporation law, to conduct a hotel business, using its profits for the tubercular. Hence no redress could be had through usual channels, such as the State Board of Charities, and the National and New York Tuberculosis Associations were obliged to enter court to ask for an injunction restraining this organization from selling seals on the ground that it injured their business. The New York City commissioner of health, Dr. Louis I. Harris, and the commissioner of charities, Bird S. Coler, supported the plaintiffs. According to the facts brought forward in their motion, the new association had collected $3,163 from July 9 to September 22, but the actual work from the date of incorporation till October 1, consisted "in the care of two patients afflicted with tuberculosis for the support of whom the amount of $152.25 was expended."

The injunction issued by the Supreme Court of the State of New York prohibits this business organization from "using in any way, in connection with tuberculosis a cross in any form or design; using in any way, in connection with tuberculosis a seal sale method of collecting funds or contributions of any kind; from doing any or all acts or things which may be calculated to deceive the public as to the identity of the defendant corporation or to lead the public to believe that the defendant corporation is in any way connected with the plaintiff corporations or the work carried on by the plaintiff corporations" (New York and national tuberculosis associations).

After the manner of New York courts the case will not come up for trial or further action for two years during which time the legitimate tuberculosis associations are completely protected by the injunction and it is confidently expected that the corporation thus enjoined will promptly go out of business.

WE have been so busy for many years asking distinguished foreigners what they thought of the skyline of New York that we have not always stopped to ask ourselves the same question. Two striking comments on the skyscraper were made by Thomas Adams, director of the New York Regional Plan Committee, in an address before the city-planning section of the American Society of Civil Engineers. The first is that even in New York "heights of buildings have not reached the point of increasing average heights over older cities like Berlin, Paris and central parts of London. The average height of buildings in Manhattan is only 4.8 stories. . . . Until further high buildings raise the average, we cannot tell what the effect of high buildings will be on traffic and business." The second is that "real estate owners and leading financial corporations now claim that the best business investments are low buildings, even in valuable locations."

In support of this statement Mr. Adams quoted W. Burke Harmon, of the National Real Estate Corporation, as saying that "all floors above the second floor can be largely eliminated as contributors toward the income of the building over a long period of years. The cost of upkeep of the upper stories and the interest on the investment represented thereby, plus taxes, would barely be met by the revenue derived from this space in normal times." And Richard M. Hurd, president of the Lawyers' Mortgage Company, is quoted as reporting that "low buildings in valuable locations pay a much higher percentage of income than high buildings." Mr. Adams pertinently asks, "What justification can there be for crowding high buildings together, with all the evils of congestion incidental to this crowding, if they do not pay?"

Papers in all cities having skyscraper ambitions please copy.

THE crux of the international after-war adjustments in general, and of the League of Nations in particular, is popularly supposed to pivot on the reparations and armament situations in relation to the delicate balance of power in Europe. Only the few realize that that one tap root of the future peace, like those of the war itself, lies outside Europe in the rivalries and entanglements of competitive industrial imperialism, and that when Europe fights, Africa and Asia are likely to be the bones of contention. The fate of the new hoped-for era of world relations really rests on some speedy solution of the problems of colonial exploitation. And since that depends on a wholesale conversion of the present policy of crude exploitation into a program of honest and accountable trusteeship, a most precious thing in the League of Nations is Article 22—the warrant of the Committee on Protectorates and Mandated Territories.

Basing its program on the voluntary extension of this new policy of mandates to the entire British system of colonial government, the official memorandum of the British Labour Party on Africa, entitled Labour and the Empire, with a foreword by J. H. Thomas, secretary of state for the colonies under the Macdonald regime and organizer of the Labour Committee of the League of Nations, comes as an enlightening reminder of the crucial importance of this question. It points out flagrant instances of land and labor exploitation in Kenya, Nyasaland, Rhodesia, Swaziland, and Natal, and shows the danger should this ruthless system extend, as it threatens, to areas like the Gold Coast, Nigeria, Tanganyika, and Basutoland, where as yet a somewhat enlightened and considerate policy of protected native land ownership and limited European leasehold exists. The startling area of two million square miles of territory and forty-two millions of natives involved in the expansion of the British empire in Africa impresses us with the

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any formal synthesis of modern knowledge in a curriculum but by devoting the freshman year to the comprehensive study of a single historic episode such as the Greek civilization, setting the freshmen to reading the literature of that period and, under the friendly guidance and stimulation of a faculty of men who were masters of special fields, taking that civilization to pieces, seeing how it worked, what forces animated it, and what germs of the future were thrown up by it."

The experimental college will enroll only those who offer themselves as volunteers, and will be organized under a tutorial system in a special building. Professor Meikeljohn has suggested that the second year will be devoted to some later historic period, possibly English civilization in the nineteenth century or our own American gropings, giving the student opportunity to draw comparisons between various approaches to continuing social problems, and the kind of civilization that emerges when certain factors are present and certain methods used. The New Student comments editorially,

> This is of course an adaptation to higher education of the project method that has been worked out in primary and secondary education. And there at least is this advantage in taking a situation out of the past rather than out of the present—it will stand still while you study it.

All this sounds much more hopeful than what is usually put forward labelled "curriculum modification." This usually means a reduction of the number of required courses as has been recently done at Barnard College, or the introduction of a course in "free reading" such as Cornell has had for several years, and Trinity College (Hartford) is introducing this year (see The Survey, Sept. 15, p. 641). Such efforts may offer some amelioration of the lot of the rigidly "instructed" student, in giving him a greater sense of freedom. Actually, there is little alteration of the academic process involved. The same bewilderingly numerous and unrelated courses are displayed on the collegiate show counter (see The Survey, April 15, p. 89) and the student is still "*given* an education" which is mainly an agglomeration of facts with a little laboratory technique.

The Wisconsin experiment means, if it means anything, an honest attempt to give young people of college age opportunity to range widely and at leisure through broad and very loosely defined fields of human knowledge and experience, to read, to ponder, to compare, and to achieve for themselves a real purpose and a real means of education.

IT is just twenty years since a few California counties first tried the experiment of giving county aid to dependent children in their own homes. The first definite legal provision of legal aid to mothers of dependent children was passed by the Missouri Legislature in 1911, and by the start of 1926, mothers' pension legislation of various kinds had been adopted by forty-two states and Alaska. In a new study, Aid to Mothers With Dependent Children, by Emma O. Lundberg, the Children's Bureau attempts to evaluate the effectiveness of the application of the accepted principle of public aid to keep children in their own homes.

Approximately 130,000 children, Miss Lundberg finds, are benefitted at present by mothers' pensions. Yet if an estimate were made of all the children who should receive aid because of some more or less permanent family disability, it would run closer to 400,000 or even more. Though its economic advantages are not the primary consideration, home-care can be shown definitely to be very much cheaper than institutional care for dependent children. (That it is better for them is now one of the established canons of modern social work.) The New York City Board of Child Welfare found in 1923 in a study of thousands of cases that it cost $28.40 a month on an average to maintain a child in an institution, and only a little more than $15 a month to maintain him in his own home.

Yet despite these practical advantages, the actual appropriations of the majority of the states, and the careless administrative methods of some of them, have been such as to impair very seriously the value of the laws on the statute books. It is calculated that $1,000 probably represents a minimum annual standard of living for a mother and three children; yet the maximum mother's allowance for such a family would amount to less than $800 in 35 of the 42 States, and to less than $480 in twenty of them. The Bureau recommends that no arbitrary maximum be fixed, but that it be left to the administrative agency to determine the amount in each case "sufficient to enable the mothers to bring up their children properly in their own homes." Mothers' aid in this country, proudly accepted in principle and thoroughly justified by experience, still shows, according to Miss Lundberg, "most obvious evidence of the seriousness of placing laws on the statute books, but failing to make them practically effective through adequate appropriation and proper administration."

INSTALLMENT buying means automobiles, radios, "overstuffed" furniture, and stylish clothes in wage groups where such non-essentials were once considered unattainable luxuries. It means a decent standard of living for many families of small income, the heads of which are honest, ambitious and skilled managers. It means, all too often, foolish extravagance, loss of money and goods, dishonesty and bitterness. It means new problems to merchants, charitable organizations and economists. The growing importance of the whole question of installment purchasing is underscored by the recent national conference on Business and Public Policy of the Academy of Political Science in New York, in which one entire session and a part of another were devoted to various phases of the question. The necessity for the better organization of installment selling by the firms doing their business that way centered in the very practical suggestion that the sale of goods and the extension of credit be made, as far as possible, entirely separate transactions. As stated by Lawson Purdy, general director of the Charity Organization Society of New York, "The business of selling goods and the business of extending credit should be divorced. The cost of credit should be distinguished from the cost of goods, so that the buyer has no illusions about how much of the price is for the goods and how much is for the credit. The charge for the credit should be sufficient to meet the burden of expense."

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immense potentialities of this problem for world-good or world-evil.

The Labour Party manifesto takes consistent, high ground on all aspects of the situation, declaring for the "abolition of economic exploitation and the education of the native so that he may take his place as a free man both in the economic and political systems imposed upon Africa" as a general policy and as land grants and leases, moderate native taxation and the use of native taxes for native requirements, health, education, and the promotion of agriculture and native industries, and the abolition of forced labor, labor contracts with criminal penalties for violations, and discriminatory "colour-bar" legislation. There is even the bold suggestion of general and voluntary submission to international accountability for colonial trusteeship. It is a most significant manifesto.

No one expects too much in the third decade after the great imperialistic plunge into Africa—most of this territory was acquired between 1880 and 1900. But no one can ignore the fact that a new problem with all the moral magnitude and seriousness of the slave trade and its hard fought abolition has arisen for the conscience and effort of our day and the near future.

THOUGHTFUL New Englanders have long realized that the way in which industrial establishments and farmers in other sections of the country were learning to cooperate was a serious economic challenge to New England. Pessimistic New Englanders have said that New England business men and New England farmers could never get together. A group of courageous New Englanders were willing to make the experiment and so far the optimists have the advantage, for at the recent New England Conference in Hartford there was a definite feeling that many things had come to fulfillment which, at the first meeting in Worcester a year ago, had been chiefly by way of aspiration. The Hartford Conference called together more than a thousand delegates and guests representing industrial, commercial and agricultural organizations and chambers of commerce from all the New England states.

Between conferences, there was a pushing toward concrete results by the New England Council, made up of twelve delegates from each of the six states. At Hartford, the council reported to the conference through committees on power, research, agriculture, recreational resources, and public relations and community organization. The conference accepted these reports as milestones of definite progress. The Power Committee, by way of example, has brought together the power interests and the public utilities commissioners of five states and a representative of the governor from the sixth. These men have been discussing how the barriers that now hedge about the transmission of power over state lines can be broken down in order that the power companies may operate more efficiently, the cost of power for industrial and home consumption be lowered and protection of the paramount interest of the public secured. The Power Committee presented to the conference a specific plan for giving state utilities commissions joint jurisdiction in relation to interstate sale of power. Whatever may come from the Council's activities in the power field, its insistence that the public as represented by the state public utilities commissioners be brought in on the ground floor as instruments of friendly advice and judicious warning should place future dealings between the New England states and the power companies on a simpler and more efficient basis.

NEWTON D. BAKER, former secretary of war, admires Patrick Henry so warmly that he is said to have built on the heights, near Cleveland, a replica of the patriot's great red brick Virginia mansion, and to this home for a friendly cup of tea, Mrs. Baker invited all the visiting delegates to the recent twenty-seventh annual meeting of the National Consumers' League.

The Baker house and the cheering teapot are hardly the usual points on which to hang an account of so interesting and busy a gathering as that which discussed workmen's compensation during the two days in Cleveland. It is chosen as a focus only because it was while Mr. Baker was secretary of war, during the Great War, that he was also president of the National Consumers' League. Putting the two together meant that our soldiers' uniforms were then turned out by the million under conditions which insured health and decency for the worker—as well as for the man who wore the uniform. Mr. Baker had known of the epidemic in one of the army camps during the Spanish War which was traced back to the tenement in which uniforms had been made. He appointed a Board of Control on which the Consumers' League was represented by its secretary, whose business it was to see that such things could not happen with the clothes worn by the army during the Great War.

Professor John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin, is now the league's president and presided at the Cleveland meeting. He spoke on unemployment, a subject, which although neither the professor nor the Bible says so, is probably the chief reason why the poor are always with us. Mrs. Florence Kelley, the league's secretary, braved her doctor's wrath to go to Cleveland for this meeting. Her chief interest is in the children of the nation and readers of The Survey will remember the reasons she gave in the opening chapter of her autobiography (The Survey for October 1) which formed her deep concern for the coming generation.

WITH a student body of 125, Wisconsin's new "experimental college," under the direction of Alexander Meikeljohn, former president of Amherst, is under way. The general plan was stated last spring by Glenn Frank, president of the University, who believes that students should be "exposed to a broadly concerned and coherently organized body of general knowledge during some definite period of the college years that precede the intensive specialization of graduate study and professional training." Professor Meikeljohn proposes specifically that "we might find our way out of the confused wilderness of unrelated specialisms, not by

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The New Church of the Rural Community

By ROBERT W. McCULLOGH

MANY religious leaders see in the formation of so-called "community" churches in rural areas the spread of an open rebellion against denominationalism, and therefore set up a cry of alarm. Others see in them the beginnings of a movement of real value to Christianity, and are advocates of union. But neither the alarmists nor the boosters have come forward with any considerable array of facts of any kind about these churches.

There are several reasons why they have not. Each denomination is able to count its own church units and to gather statistical data and other revealing information about them. But it is extremely difficult to keep anything like an accurate count of the united churches, and they do not easily fit into any denominational system of fact-gathering.

Besides they are so widely scattered that only a few men here and there have been able to examine as many as a half dozen of them at first hand, while everyone else has had to harken to rumor and observe from afar. Consequently little trustworthy information concerning the number and location of united churches, or the nature and spread of the new movement and its basic implications, has been available to anyone.

But an exhaustive study has now been made of the entire subject of rural church union. In connection with a survey of American agricultural villages, upon which it has been engaged during the past three years, the Institute of Social and Religious Research set itself the special task of studying the new churches in the open country, and in rural places of not more than 5,000 population. Every part of the United States was covered except the South, where the union movement has made comparatively little headway.

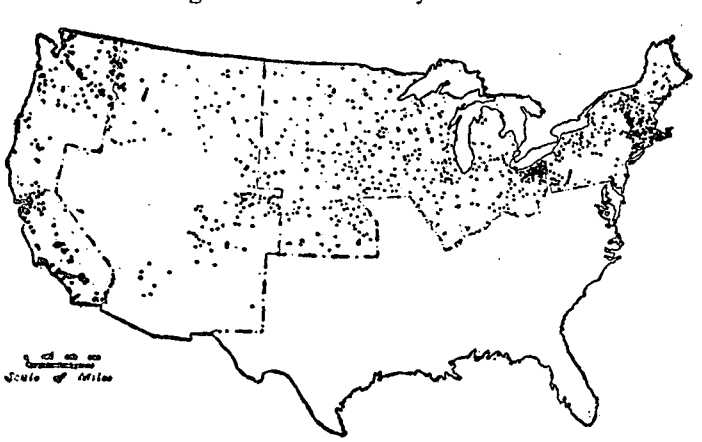
The Institute sought to ascertain how widespread the movement really is; under what conditions it gains foothold in a community; what elements of strength the new churches possess, and what elements of weakness; what their attitude is toward the overhead denominational organizations; how the overhead organizations react toward them—and many other things of interest to church officials and laymen alike.

But first it was necessary to find and count, if possible, all the united churches within the field of study; and that first step presented many difficulties. Not the least of these resulted from the fact that many a church with "community" or "union" displayed conspicuously in its title proved on examination to be just a regularly organized denominational church, formed perhaps by the union of two churches of the same denomination.

This was a survey of churches of the new kind; therefore no organization was listed and counted unless it had made basic changes in its membership requirements, and in its forms of organization and worship, to enable it to minister to persons of any Protestant affiliation within its field of influence. The total number found was 977.

Current discussion shows a surprising lack of agreement as to what these churches are like. Many persons assume that they are all of one kind; others that they fall into two or, at the most, three differing groups. The Institute's study identified four types. There were 312 federated churches, distinguished by the fact that each of the combining units kept its connection with its own denominational body. The denominational type was represented by 491 churches. In this case one or more of the uniting churches had relinquished denominational allegiance to become merged in another and had accepted that other's denominational connection. Of the undenominational type, in which neither the new church nor any of its component units held any denominational connection, 137 representative organizations were found. There were also 37 churches which the report classified as "affiliated." These are of a type of very recent development, and differ from the others in that they maintain a loose connection with a denomination for certain specified purposes and no others.

Some of the united churches had been formed by a single denominational church opening its doors to persons of other denominations; some by individuals of diverse denominational affiliations, the greater number of these being in newly settled districts where before there had not been any church; while 428 had been created by the actual union of two or more churches, 928 previously independent denominational organizations having entered into these unions.



The dots on the map show the location of 977 united churches found in the survey which covered every part of the United States except the South

Protestants of every kind, representatives of more than fifty different faiths, were found in membership; but the denominations most strongly represented were the Northern Baptist, the Congregational, the Methodist Episcopal and the Presbyterian in the U. S. A.,

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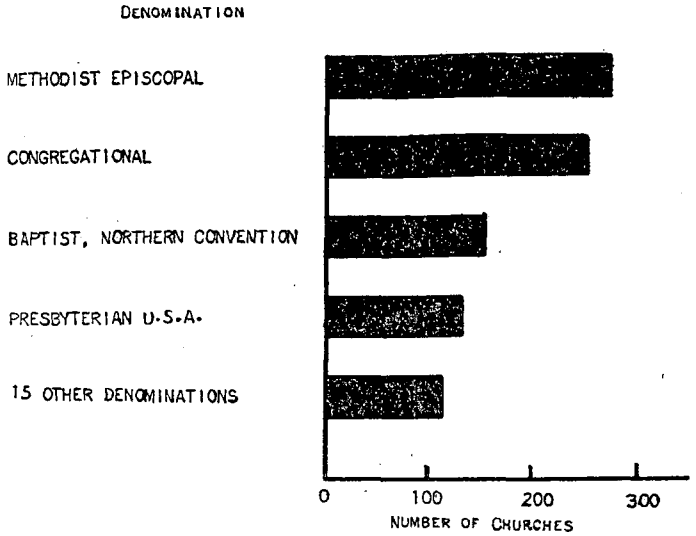
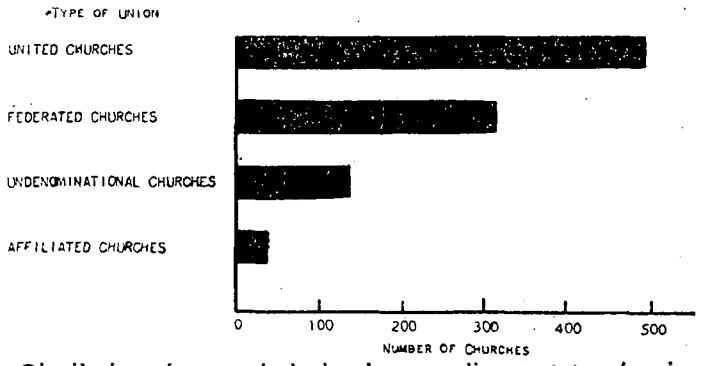
which had furnished more than 88 per cent of the 928 denominational churches that, as organizations, had actually entered into union.

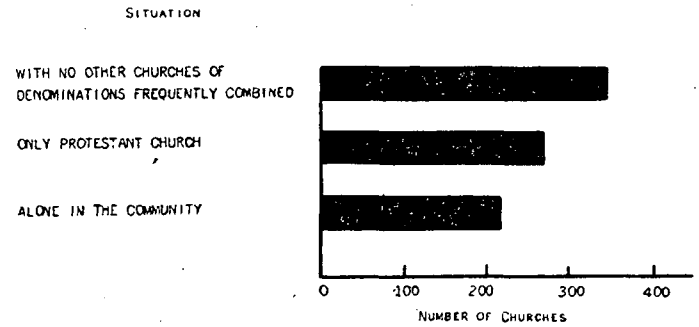
The spread of the movement is also indicated by the presence of churches of the four different kinds in every part of the field covered—in the East, the Middle West, the Rocky Mountain region and the Far West. The Institute's report of its findings, written by Elizabeth R. Hooker, and to be published under the title United Churches, points out, however, that rather marked differences are to be observed in the regional distribution of the different types. The federated churches are most numerous in the East, while the undenominational is the predominent type in the Middle West and the denominational united in the Far West.



Distributions by denominations of 928 churches that combined to form 428 united churches



Distribution of 977 united churches according to type of union



Situation of 491 united churches with respect to the presence or absence of other churches in the same communities

The study shows that the movement for the union of local rural churches is not only nation-wide, but that it is growing. The great majority of the churches whose date of origin could be ascertained have come into existence since the United States entered the World War. Only forty-four were found that went back as far as 1912.

The fact that most of the churches were in communities of a particular kind is important for the light it throws upon the conditions that give rise to union. Less than 4 per cent of all the united churches studied by the Institute were in places of from 2,500 to 5,000 population, and only 3.9 per cent in large villages, while five-sixths of the entire number were in communities with a population at the center of a thousand or less, small places where the financial burden of maintaining two or more churches of different denominations would be likely to weigh heavily and give rise to complaints of overchurching.

Those who regard the movement as one of rebellion against denominationalism will perhaps find little to support their position in the history of these churches. Nearly everywhere the success of the effort to form unions was traceable to the expressed belief of the local people that there were too many weak, competing churches for the community to support. In some cases a united church was established in a new community with the avowed purpose on the part of its founders of drawing all members into one fold regardless of their particular affiliations, to keep other churches out of the field. In the main, however, the purpose was to do away with overchurching, not to prevent it; and the different types of organization merely represented different expedients adopted in different places, owing to peculiar local conditions.

If each of the combining units insisted upon keeping its connection with its denominational body, the union formed was a federated church. If one was unwilling to relinquish its denominational allegiance and the other or others were willing to merge in it and accept its denominational connection, the result, of course, was a denominational united church.

Sometimes, where there was a history of old rivalries behind the churches concerned, they all cut themselves off from their denominational bodies and became undenominational; not in protest or rebellion against denominationalism, but so that no group within the new church should seem to have an advantage over any other group.

The Institute reports, however, that there was no standardized form for any of the types, that they were all in a formative stage to a certain extent, and that a considerable number of the churches had shifted about from one type to another.

As bearing on the result of the movement, so far as overchurching is concerned, the report shows that out of a sample consisting of half the united churches listed in 1924, 44.9 per cent were the only churches in their respective communities, 55.3 per cent were the only Protestant churches, and 70.6 per cent were in communities without churches of the denominations most frequently combined.

An outstanding disclosure of the survey is that the greater number of unions were formed by lay leaders, men and women with no very intimate knowledge of the practices and viewpoints of overhead denominational organizations. For several years leaders of certain of the overhead bodies have been jointly active in furthering the movement in New England; but elsewhere the members of the churches con-

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cerned have usually solved their problems unaided, or are now working out the solutions without even knowing how similar experiments have resulted in other unions of the same kind.

As might be expected, the constitutions drawn up to meet the local difficulties in ways satisfactory to the local people, contain provisions that trained denominational leaders will find novel, to say the least.

Many of them provide for receiving members without exacting adherence to any denominational doctrine or submission to any denominational rite. Some accomplish this by having associate members, often with full voting power. Generally the forms of worship prescribed are those common to the denominations represented in the union, with all sorts of compromises provided to cover inconsistencies in the different usages.

Regardless of the type, united churches appear to be able to win readily the favorable regard of non-church-members; and often they are in a position to engage successfully and without rivalry, upon plans for community welfare. They draw an exceptionally large part of their funds from persons not members of the church, are able to pay their ministers unusually high salaries; and, consequently, have a proportionately larger number of full-time, resident ministers trained in college and seminary than have strictly denominational churches in places of comparable size. These may be set down as indicating elements of strength.

Though it was not possible to obtain statistical data for more than three-fourths of the entire number of united churches, the incomplete figures gathered, as of the year 1924, showed for them a membership of 80,000, church buildings and parsonages with a total valuation of more than $6,750,000, and benevolences of more than $300,000.

On the other hand the study shows that each of the three older types has peculiar tendencies toward impermanence. The undenominational churches, lacking expert supervision, attested ministerial supply, and other advantages provided by overhead bodies, showed a tendency to become ineffective and to fall into inactivity unless they were sustained by exceptional local leadership. Federated churches, it was found, had sometimes been brought to dissolution by their divided affiliation and separate property interests. Those of the denominational united type had in a number of cases reverted and become strictly denominational organizations. As for the affiliated churches, with their loose overhead connection designed to bring them the advantages of denominational supervision without inclining them to reversion—they were too few and of too recent development to show characteristic tendencies.

Despite the uncertainties and the breakdown of the new adventure, however, it appears very evident that when once the desire for church union has developed in a community, it has persisted. The many changes from one type to another with which the record is filled give evidence of this. Even where unions have failed to survive, the common experience has been for the local groups to continue their effors. Often in such cases officials of one denomination after another have been appealed to for advice and aid, and a new union has finally been effected.

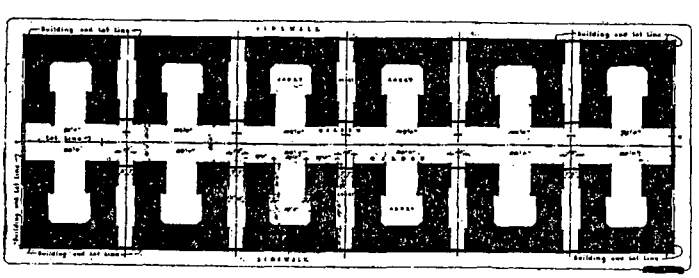
The denominations, on their side, have not found it easy to assimilate churches of such diverse forms and practices and affiliations, and a few alarmists among their leaders are openly hostile to the new movement; nevertheless they have not been unresponsive to the local appeals. Through the agency of home missions, councils, or federations of churches, they are trying in many states to do their part in this vast experiment in compromise and cooperation.

House for the Goose, House for the Gander

By VICTOR H. LAWN

RICH man, poor man, beggar man, thief—all who live in the city share in some degree the particular advantages and the particular disadvantages that are characteristic of human concentration. The only essential difference is that if you have money you can escape from the city at will, and if you haven't, you can't.

Houses in the city share certain characteristics by virtue of being in the city. One of them is lack of contact with Mother Earth. The millionaire on Fifth Avenue used to have his own garden; now the side-yard in which the rich man's dog has room to exercise is a curiosity, and the multifamily house, for all its grandeur when it occurs on Park or Fifth Avenues, is still a house in which a family lives inside four walls and on a steel-and-concrete shelf—two, five, twenty stories, it may be, off the ground. The problem of designing either apartment or tenement dwellings so that those who live in them can at least have plenty of air and sunlight, and can at best have a share in the use of a bit of open space, is one that calls for endless imagination and experiment.



Block plan of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company buildings in Queens, New York city—white represents open spaces, courts, gardens; black, the buildings

Andrew J. Thomas has been a force in experiments of this order, and a leader in the educational work which tends to spread their influence. He is particularly interested in the history of New York housing because he tried out his theories first in relatively expensive apartments and then carried them over bodily into the low-cost housing field. Born in a tenement and reared in one, later collecting rents from tenement dwellers, and still later helping to build tenements, he knew the story of tenement living from personal experience. When, still later, he had educated himself and had become a practicing architect, he kept in mind the tenement problem and addressed himself to its solution. But he had his first opportunity to experiment—

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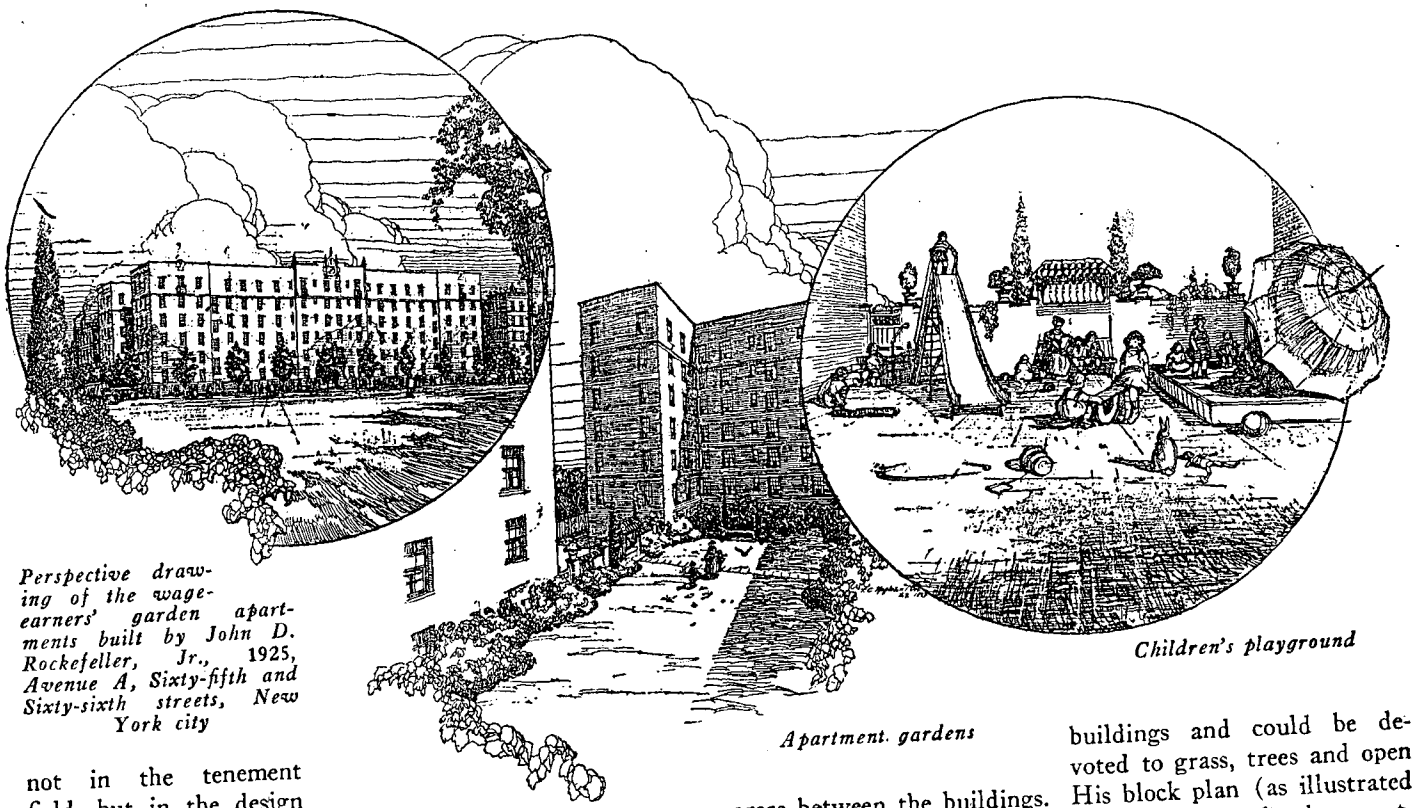

Perspective drawing of the wage-earners' garden apartments built by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., 1925, Avenue A, Sixty-fifth and Sixty-sixth streets, New York city

Apartment gardens

Children's playground

not in the tenement field, but in the design of garden apartments for much higher rent levels. The Queensborough Corporation, with his help as architect, took relatively undeveloped outlying land in Queens, gave it an attractive name—Jackson Heights—and put up garden apartments for the middle or upper ranges of rent-payers. Mr. Thomas planned these houses so that an exceptionally large part of the ground area was left free of buildings and could be developed as garden or play-space, and the corporation advertised the apartments as a novel combination of city convenience and suburban advantages.

This formula having proved attractive to those who could afford to live in such houses, Mr. Thomas looked about for an opportunity to do something similar at a much smaller cost. He believed long before the war, he says, that it was cheaper to scrap the old tenements of the slums and put up new well-planned houses than to modernize the old buildings.

The demonstration of low-cost housing made by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company [see The Survey, July 15, 1922, Dec. 15, 1925] marked the first step in Mr. Thomas' experiments in this direction. The New York state law under which this enterprise was begun allowed life insurance companies to build and operate multifamily houses provided the rent did not exceed $9 a room a month, the bathroom not being counted as a room. "This maximum limitation on rentals," according to Mr. Thomas, "served to increase the native conservatism of the company's fiscal officers, and I was compelled to reduce the size of the rooms somewhat below the minimum I had set. But the highly important factor of large-scale operation remained."

This factor affected not only the cost of production, since economies in organization, in financing, and in buying materials resulted from it, but also the freedom of planning. The project involved whole city blocks, with plots of 120,000 square feet of space on each of four streets. Mr. Thomas used this space so that 49 per cent of it was free of buildings and could be devoted to grass, trees and open areas between the buildings. His block plan (as illustrated here) provided exceptional ventilation for all the apartments—windows in every room, and cross-ventilation in every apartment. In these buildings some 2,200 families found new homes—with individual bathrooms, electric light, steam-heat, and outside bedroom windows—at a rental of $9 a room a month—$36 for a four-room-and-bath apartment. Investigation showed that this was cheaper than the rent most of the tenants had been paying in old-law houses, for although the rent itself might have been less, the tenants had formerly been compelled to furnish their own heat and hot water, and their rooms had been so dark that gas bills were larger than in the new houses.

This $9 rental was originally made possible by tax-exemption for ten years, which amounted to a saving to each tenant of about $1.50 a room a month. But the Metropolitan is making nearly 9 per cent on its investment where it had sought to make but 7 per cent, and even discounting the saving due to tax-exemption the profit is large enough to carry the enterprise as it stands.

This operation was carried out in Queens Borough, on relatively cheap land. Its lesson for low-cost housing in general was the economy of large-scale production and of reasonable financing. If built as individual units, these same houses would have cost, according to Mr. Thomas' estimate, 25 per cent more than they did. After the successful conclusion of the experiment, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company announced that it had completed its housing work.

Capital, at a rate of interest which contrasts sharply with the exorbitant charges which burden the cost of financing in most speculative building, was, however, available from another source. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., became interested in the demonstration that decent housing could be constructed on a business rather than a charity basis and supported Mr. Thomas' experiments. His first act was to assume the major share of the financing of a group of houses

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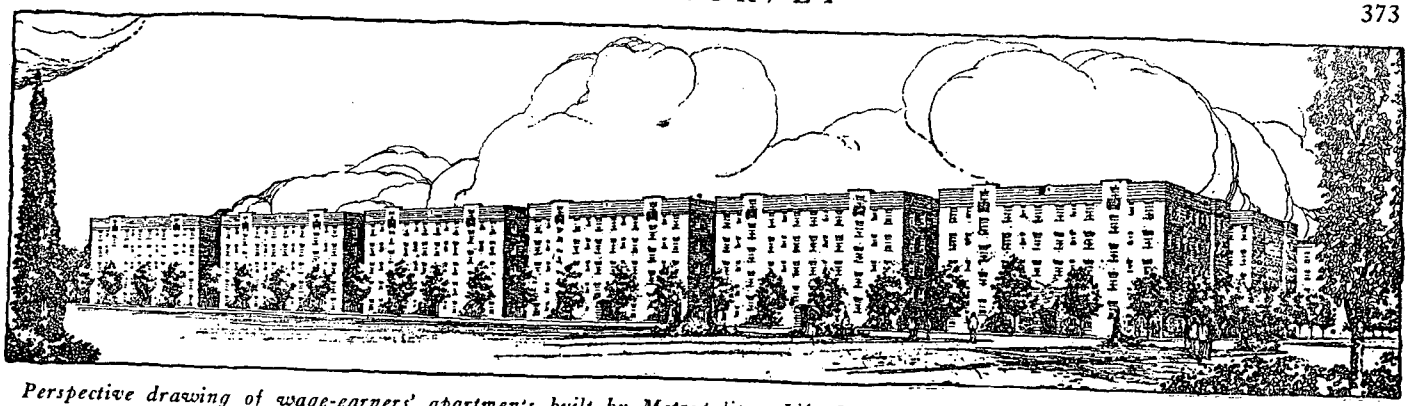


Perspective drawing of wage-earners' apartments built by Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Queens, New York city, 1923, Andrew J. Thomas and D. Everett Waid, Assoc. architects

in Bayonne, N. J., across the bay from New York, to be rented to employes of several industries there.

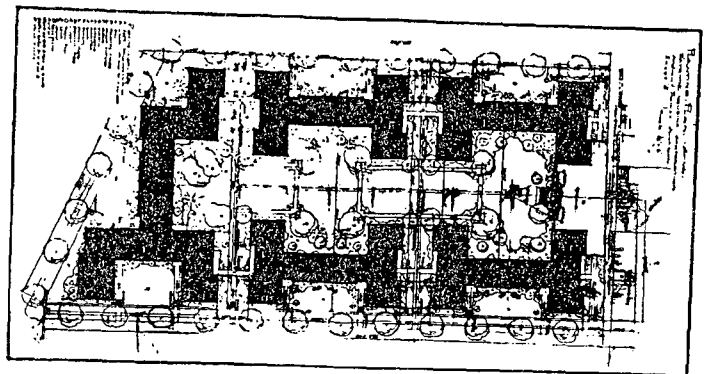
The Bayonne project ran afoul of local building restrictions, a difficulty which had been successfully avoided in the Metropolitan enterprise. The modification of antiquated building codes is a vital factor in lowering the cost of modern house-construction. There was objection to the plans which showed rooms only eight feet high, until Mr. Thomas offered evidence to prove that the air in the top of such a room is actually purer than that in an eight-foot-six or nine-foot room in which an unventilated pocket remains above the level of the window-openings. In an eight-foot room the window is but a few inches from the ceiling and the used air passes out easily when the sash is lowered an inch or two. More spirited opposition—in which bricklayers and brick manufacturers shared—was offered to the proposal to build these houses of hollow tile instead of the conventional brick. The city officials supported this opposition on the ground that it was unsafe to allow the ordinary builder to work with hollow tile in view of the increased care and closer inspection which that made necessary. Public pressure, however, resulted in the modification of the restrictions on both points and savings resulted. Land values were not greatly different from those in Queens, and even though there was no tax-exemption here in favor of the new houses, and the area involved was smaller than in the Metropolitan project, houses much superior to the average were put up to rent for from $9.50 to $10.25 a room a month.

The occupied area in the Bayonne plan was reduced from 51 per cent, as in Queens, to 36 per cent. The open space—almost two-thirds of the total—was landscaped so that the dwellings could fairly be called garden apartments. At one end of the property was a playground for children, with swings, slides, and sandpiles, and a comfort station. Some of the apartments were of six rooms, which seems reasonable in view of the fact that wage-earners have a habit of having large families, and to permit six people to live in four rooms is a doubtful means of ending congestion. One of the rooms in the larger units was given its own bathroom and so placed that it could be entered directly from the foyer. The second bathroom offered additional privacy to some member of the family, or the extra room with bath could be sublet to a tenant in families which could not afford at the time to occupy all six rooms. The rooms in the Bayonne experiment were larger than in the Metropolitan project.

The next step in this progressive development of the garden-tenement idea, however, was notable in that Mr. Rockefeller financed a house on costly ground on the middle East Side of Manhattan. He bought a plot 200'x100' on Avenue A between 65th and 66th Streets, near the Rockefeller Institute, at a cost approaching $30,000 per lot of 25x100 feet. The plans combined the best features of the Metropolitan and the Bayonne houses, but the area developed—less than one-fifth of that at Bayonne and only a fifteenth of that in Queens—prevented the saving due to large-scale operation. In spite of this handicap, apartments were provided in a building occupying only half the ground area, some of them six rooms with two baths, to rent for $12 to $15 a room a month. A children's playground was added in the open space. "I am confident," says Mr. Thomas, "that if I had been able to use the entire block and develop the store possibilities on First Avenue the rentals would have been reduced easily about $2 a room a month." This house has been occupied, as would have been expected, by tenants of the salaried rather than the wage-earning group, but the lesson remains that it is possible to build garden apartment houses on high-priced Manhattan land at rentals far below the market for similar construction, if the operation is on a large enough scale.

The third of Mr. Rockefeller's demonstrations is still in process of construction, but is to be opened next month. It occupies the block between Mott and Sheridan Avenues, 158th and 159th Streets, in the Bronx—a plot bought by Mr. Rockefeller from certain groups of needle-trade workers who had planned to build there cooperatively. The buildings cover 46 per cent of the ground area due to improved plans which have saved an amount, in construction costs and carrying charges during the life of the buildings, which Mr. Thomas estimates at $200,000. The first plan for 161 rooms on every floor in a building with 36,000 square feet of excavation and building material has given way to one for 163 rooms of the same or larger size with

(*Continued on page* 412)



Block plan of the Bayonne (New Jersey) Housing Corporation buildings (in black), showing landscaping

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Resolution No. 68

The A. F. of L. Goes in for Research

By ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

THE forty-sixth annual convention of the American Federation of Labor at Detroit in October, was superficially one of the least exciting the Federation has ever held. The ten-day debate on scores of questions that came before the more than four hundred delegates representing one hundred and seven national and international unions was so tranquil that not once was a point of order raised against any speaker and not until the subject of the next convention city was reached was a roll call demanded. The hot clash of opinion that used to set off fireworks in the days when the socialists were His Majesty Gompers' opposition,—an opposition which he delighted to use as a foil for his thundering eloquence,—remained so completely a memory that it seemed to envelop the convention with such intensified silence as that which falls upon the desert after a stray hunter has fired his gun.

The ill-advised action of certain employers' organizations in bringing pressure upon the churches of Detroit and upon the board of directors of the Y. M. C. A. to have them withdraw invitations to their platforms which they had extended to labor leaders sent a surge of militant emotion through the convention.

An entire day was devoted to Soviet Russia, and though the subject evoked some impassioned oratory it produced nothing that resembled an exchange of divergent and thought-through opinions. William Z. Foster, stigmatized as the "arch-priest of communism in America," sat cynically smiling in the gallery, but he and others who shared his views were more dogmatically barred from the floor of the convention than the A. F. of L. leaders were from Detroit's pulpits, inasmuch as the energetic action of certain representatives of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America unlocked the doors of many churches to the protagonists of the trade unions before the convention was over. The forty-sixth annual convention was a feast where all the spices were sweet to those who partook of them.

Baer in Labor, Washington, D. C.

AS LABOR SEES THE COMPANY UNIONS

And yet many old observers shared President Green's view when, before dropping the gavel for final adjournment, he characterized the meeting as "one of the most educational and constructive we have ever held." Mr. Green would probably adduce a half dozen reasons for his appraisal, but there is one which overtops all the others. On the ninth day of the convention, the Executive Council was authorized to levy "a special assessment or contribution upon the affiliated organizations" for the purpose of establishing an industrial research fund. The authorization was part of a resolution (Resolution 68) calling for the systematic study of company unions with a view to the formulation of a campaign for their abolition and their replacement by a voluntary system of union-management cooperation. This is the immediate purpose of the fund. But, as the same resolution implies, this is only part of the larger vision of research as an essential means toward the "better understanding and a more permanent solution of our problems of life and industry." This is the first time in the forty-six years of its history that the A. F. of L. has authorized a special assessment for sustained scientific research.

The authorization was the logical but by no means inevitable sequel to the resolutions adopted at the Portland and Atlantic City conventions in which the trade unions first began definitely to assert their interest in those problems which have traditionally been regarded as within the exclusive jurisdiction of management. The Portland resolution, while a rather vague restatement of the Federation's wartime insistence upon the Americanism of "industrial democracy," did stretch the theory of collective bargaining beyond a buyer's and seller's agreement over the price of labor to include labor's democratic interest in the laws and rules of industry, in the shaping of managerial policy. The Atlantic City resolution was much more explicit in that it "urged upon management the elimination of waste in production in order that the selling price may be

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lower and wages higher. To the end we recommend co-operation in study of waste in production." (See The Survey, November 1925, p. 168.)

This resolution would seem to have been a by-product of the Federation's approval of the union-management plan as experimentally initiated by the railroad shop crafts in the locomotive repair shops of the Baltimore and Ohio, which had made it clear that cooperation in dealing with production problems required a precise knowledge of non-controversial, objective managerial technique, and the complete seperation of the machinery for the adjustment of grievances, in which union business agents are specialists, from the committees having to do with the improvement of production methods.

Now the guiding spirits of the A. F. of L., in spite of their diplomatically unqualified indictment of company unions as "mere thinly disguised forms of compulsory association" through which employers "by phrases calculated to indicate a condition of quasi-freedom" ensnare their employes, are recognizing that the strength of the more successful company unions rests upon the employers' superior mastery of the technique of scientifically organized production and their effective use of specialists in the application of research, both to the physical problems of mechanical production and to the psychological problems of industrial relations. They see that if union-management cooperation is to supercede company unionism in its strongholds where enlightened managements have succeeded in winning the loyalty of their employes, not only through "welfare work" but especially by engaging their creative interest in the scientifically organized production process, the unions must be in a position to bring to the subjects of constructive cooperation an equal technical equipment. This resolution authorizing the executive council to create an industrial research fund would thus seem to mean that the national federation of the trade unions is about to take steps to convert the union-management policy from a paper program, as with the exception of the shopcrafts, it has been, to a working platform.

ONE finds a piquant illustration of the psychological significance of this decision in the advertising pages of The American Federationist, "official magazine of the American Federation of Labor." For years, officers of the Federation have shot their biggest verbal ammunition against company unions. Practically the only agency maintained by the Federation for the purposes of research and the education of its affiliated membership in the complexities of modern industrialism is the small editorial staff of The Federationist. An examination of the financial report of the Federation's secretary to the convention prompts the inference that a considerable part of The Federationist's rather meager budget is derived from its advertisers. When, then, one turns to its advertising pages, one is at least mildly surprised to find that among the most conspicuous advertisements are those of company union concerns,—on the inside of the cover, Procter & Gamble, further on, General Electric, then the Standard Oil Company, Nujol and, most surprising of all, the Botany Worsted Mills of Passaic, New Jersey. The Standard Oil advertisement is an admirably edited expression of the best attitude of company union executives toward their employes, toward workers in general.

This fact is not adduced by way of criticism of the policy that admits these advertisements to the pages of the official magazine of the American Federation of Labor. It is part of the American journalistic tradition to keep the advertising pages as a free forum for all comers who have the money to pay for space. Theoretically there is no reason why the editorial policy should be affected by the influence of the advertisers. As a matter of fact, there is no vestige of such influence in the editorial policy of the magazine. Nevertheless, one cannot escape a sense of piquant paradox in a situation where the great representative organization of unionized American labor which has made war on company unionism a major plank in its platform has looked to these company union concerns for a large part of the money with which to support such systematic industrial research work as it has done. It is to be hoped that the response of the affiliated unions to the appeal of the executive council persuant to the epoch-making resolution adopted at Detroit will more than match the contribution of company union concerns to the Federation's research equipment.

There is every prospect that, backed by the whole-hearted support of President Green, it will in due course meet his expectations. For nothing has more conspicuously characterized his administration than the increasing emphasis he has laid upon the importance of research, study and education. Even without a statistical comparison between the earlier reports and this year's report of the Executive Council to the annual convention, it is probably correct to say that rarely before was so much space devoted to stressing labor's need of more and more scientifically accurate knowledge of the complexities of modern industry, to stressing the idea that "problems are not things to be fought over—they are things to be solved."

IN considering the effect of anti-combination and anti-trust laws upon the legal status of trade unions, the report, instead of making summary disposal of the subject in an impassioned invective against the courts, declares that it "is one that is highly complex and requires considerable research and study." In reviewing the evolution of organized labor's theory of wages from the time when the law of supply and demand and the "iron law of wages" were accepted as the sole basis of wage determination, to the present policy of relating wages to "increasing production in quality as well as quantity," the report concludes that a prerequisite to putting this policy into practice is that "the representatives of the workers must know the finances of the particular establishment, every detail of production, the comparative efficiency of its management, wage standards and work conditions in competitive areas and a wealth of other detail."

In interpreting the meaning of union-management cooperation, the report, after observing that the products of modern industry are not the work of any one individual but of scores of individuals, each contributing something essential to the finished whole, makes the interesting statement that "if the entire work process is done most efficiently and most economically, the whole group operates like a perfectly synchronized machine." In order to bring this about, so that production may be increased in quantity and improved in quality and wages may so be increased, it is essential that labor should itself gather together and make available toward the production process "its traditions and accumulated group experience," instead of leaving this task to the scientific management engineers retained by the employers.

All these things, it is recognized, require the services of

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research specialists and the development of industrial research facilities. Throughout the report one finds this underlying drift from the idea of conflict to the constructive idea of scientific mastery as a basis for cooperation in dealing with the problems which both employers and the unions formerly held to be within the exclusive jurisdiction of the owners of the property. The resolution providing for the creation of a research fund is not only in line with President Green's expressed point-of-view, but also reflects a profound change in labor's own sense of its status in industry.

The press has featured the demand for a five-day week as the most striking action of the forty-sixth annual convention. In years to come, it is likely to be remembered as the convention that adopted Resolution No. 68.

Young Nomads

By AGNES E. BENEDICT

THE development of our agricultural resources along large-scale production lines has created great armies of wanderers—modern nomads, following the sun as did the ancient peoples around the earth. But there is a profound difference between the old nomads and the new. The old nomads wandered because they wanted to—because the urge to wander was planted deep in their natures. Their Lares and Penates went with them along the way. The early nomadic tribe was bound together by strong ties of blood relationship, of custom—it was a nation on the move.

From The American Child

But while some of these travelers of today move as their predecessors did for the love of moving, a larger number go for a different reason. Their urge is not to push onward, but to find a place where they can send their roots deep into the soil. Instead of being welded together, like the ancient tribe, they move in scattered, isolated groups of families, considered outcasts by the people among whom they go.

The chief problem here is that of their children—the young nomads—real Americans all—of Carlos, the "Mexie," who moves back and forth from Texas to Colorado; of Vladimer, the "Roosian," who is shipped west to the beet fields; of Maria and her sisters, "Dagos," who spend their lives journeying through the orchards of California.

We cannot make accurate statements regarding the extent of this problem of migratory child labor. In recent years various studies have been made—investigations of truck gardening, of hop and fruit picking, and of beet cultivation. The cultivation of beets is one of the most important and serious forms of migratory child labor. While the facts here given are taken from the various reports, they are typical of the general conditions described in all of them.

The company for which the work is done conducts extensive advertising campaigns in the foreign quarters of the various cities.

The workers are transported from their homes to the dwellings which are provided for them—shacks, tents or barracks, depending on the section of the country and the occupations. Despite their differences, these dwellings have one point in common—complete inadequacy as proper places in which to house people, chiefly due to overcrowding and lack of privacy.

Consider, for example, the description of conditions on the Maryland truck farms[1]: "Most camps contain but one building known as a shanty . . . which serves as sleeping quarters for the workers. Windows usually lacked glass or shutters or both. The rooms were divided into sections by boards. . . . Each family was allotted a pen. At night, men, women and children partially clad, one family separated from the next by the plank ten inches in height, lay side by side. . . . In some, futile attempts at privacy had been made by hanging up a blanket. . . . Some families have put up lace curtains in the absence of screens."

These dwellings are not meant to be lived in. The day of the entire family, from dawn to dark, is spent in the fields.

Agricultural work often requires lifting and carrying heavy weights and the maintenance of one position for long hours at a time. Ploughing and harrowing are particularly difficult for children and are very fatiguing. The thinner of beets walks in a stooping posture, bent over like a question mark, or more commonly crawls on hands and knees. The beet-puller bends at his task and does not straighten unless his back becomes unbearably tired from the strain of his wearing and unnatural position.

From The American Child

General statements regarding the hours of migratory work are difficult to make. In the main, a child who gets off with an eight-hour day is lucky. In the beet fields the hours run from eight to fifteen or in rare cases to sixteen hours a day. The number of days chil-

[1] Child Labor in Maryland Truck Farms, by Alice Channing, Federal Children's Bureau Publication No. 123, p. 25.

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dren work in a year depends upon the length of the season and the number of migrations the family makes.

Weather conditions are something with which the factory or mine-worker does not have to reckon. We quote from a report on child labor in the Michigan beet fields[1]: "Work . . . went on with little or no attention to weather. The most severe weather came during the week of October 7th to 14th, and conditions under which we found children working, wet to the skin, and speeding up to keep from freezing, give some idea of exposure common to the harvest season."

From The American Child

Work crowds out rest, recreation and schooling from the lives of these children. Reports comment repeatedly on the dearth of outside interests, the lack of church attendance, or participation in community activities.

All the reports tell one story about education—migratory children are missing weeks and weeks of school. A school superintendent in Colorado said[2]: "The harvesting of the sugar beet crop in the fall of 1924 cost 438 boys and girls in school district No. 3 just 15,123 days of school, an aggregate of 84 years."

Considering this loss of schooling, the serius retardation of migratory children is not to be wondered at. The per cent of retardation among a group of them in Colorado was three times as great as that among non-beet working farm children.[3]

How are we going to put our fingers on these illusive children? How can we send to school a group which is in one district one month and in another a little later?

Almost nothing has been done. A few experiments are being made here and there. Last year Wisconsin's Industrial Commission passed a series of rulings related to hours and age limits for children working in the beet fields. California has approached its problem in a different way. It has decided to bring the mountain to Mahomet, and is following its moving children with moving schools. The work was begun on a small scale in a Sunday school room in the walnut groves with the state supplying teacher and equipment. Classes were held in the morning and the children worked in the afternoon. In Michigan, school records are sent after the children as they move from district to district. The "beet vacation" and the summer school are solutions which have been attempted in several of the beet-raising states with varying success.

Many who are acquainted with the problem feel that the nearest approach to a solution has been made by trying, through the schools and through the attendance laws, to hold the children in their classes up to the last possible moment. It seems as though anything which recognizes that work should come first in a child's life and that school should be adjusted to it, is really a mistake. There is no question but that any adequate solution is remote. The task of investigation alone is gigantic.

There is before us an even more important task—a change of attitude toward these people. The present attitude of local communities toward migrants completely precludes the possibility of any solution of the problem. They are considered foreigners, outcasts—"They don't belong to us," "Mexies do beets but Americans don't do beets." It is the local communities who must change their point of view, for it is the local communities which must ultimately solve the problem.

[1] Child Labor in the Sugar Beet Fields of Michigan, by Walter W. Armentrout, Sara A. Brown & Charles Gibbons, National Child Labor Committee, Pub. No. 310, 1923, pp. 24-25.
[2] The Child and the Sugar Beet, by W. E. Baker, superintendent Fort Morgan schools. Quoted in Children Working in the Sugar Beet Fields of Certain Districts of the South Platte Valley, Colo., by Sara A. Brown, Nat'l Child Labor Comm., publication No. 333, p. 156.
[3] Children Working in the Sugar Beet Fields of Certain Districts of the South Platte Valley, Colo., p. 12.

How About Beggars?

By GERTRUDE R. STEIN

THERE is one beggar I frequently pass in the subway. Some years ago I tried unsuccessfully to get a job for him, but he finds begging more profitable, The living he is making is not respectable but if he came to me today I would not know how to secure work for him. Not only is he physically disabled—he is unemployable unless something is done to change his morale. He does not want to work.

Why can't you give them industrial training? you say. One can give training to some. One out of every ten might benefit by it, but how shall we select the ones who have the calibre to attend school regularly after a long period of idleness and the stamina to take a job after they have learned a new trade? Many beggars never had skilled trades. Is the fact that they are crippled going to make them into skilled workers when they never seemed to have the potentiality for more than unskilled work before their accidents?

Why can't you get them a job, even though they cannot become trained workers? We can in many cases. The thousands for whom rehabilitation bureaus for the handicapped all through the United States are now getting work prove that much can be done in this way.

But even so, many crippled beggars are not working. There are three reasons for this: many do not want to work; in most cities there is no agency which specializes in the crippled unplaceable and yet there are many in this group; many cripples who are potential workers have not been able to secure work because employers are not willing to try them.

In Paris, recently, I saw one-armed doormen in some of the best hotels. Few hotels in New York take disabled doormen, yet this is work a one-armed man can well do.

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Much has been done in the last ten years to enable disabled men to get work. One agency necessary to any scheme of rehabilitation has been forgotten in most American cities. That is a shop like the Lord Roberts Workshops in England. Started during the war to give employment to disabled soldiers, they are still maintained for soldiers but there seems no reason why the same shops could not serve disabled civilians.

The Lord Roberts Workshop at 525 Fulham Road, London, is the largest factory employing orthopedic cripples I have ever seen. There are 250 employes and all but 12 per cent are badly disabled men. More than thirty of them have lost an arm. There are many who wear artificial legs and others whose amputations are so high that they hobble to their benches on crutches. You would expect to find these men at light work, but this is not the case. The Lord Roberts Workshop specializes in "any job in wood." They were making huge show cases for a caterer, desks for a bank and work tables for a factory, when I visited them in July. They make a few toys, but women do the painting of these because they say the men prefer heavy work.

I thought I was an optimist as to the jobs crippled men could do until I visited the Lord Roberts Workshops. During the war, employers needed workers and they were interested in helping disabled soldiers. They were themselves almost as sanguine as I was. Yet even then I would not have dared ask a manufacturer to employ a man without two arms in his mill-room. In Lord Roberts Workshops I saw four men wearing artificial hooks instead of arms, moving heavy lumber in a mill-room.

In one department where they were lacquering trays and tables, one man does particularly good work. He is totally deaf. He lacks all the fingers of one hand and has two fingers on the other. If you had told me that this man could do lacquer work I would not have believed you, but if I were an employer of men for lacquering, I would gladly employ this man. When he came to the workshops he probably did not have much faith in his own ability. But the lady who runs the lacquer department is a rather remarkable person. She lost a son in the war, and in casting about for an occupation in which she could help soldiers, she started this lacquer department as a memorial to her son. She is not the usual philanthropist who sends an annual check and feels her duty done. She learned to be a lacquer-worker and then she engaged herself as forelady. You would have to look all over England to find another forelady as perfect a craftsman and as well equipped for the work.

There is a department where one-armed men are painting large pieces of furniture. They can do everything but move the heavy pieces and an uncrippled fellow workman helps them at this. Some of these men wear artificial arms, but most of them paint with one arm and lay the paint pail near them. I had no method of measuring their speed, but they appeared to be quick. But even if their output is less than that of a two-armed man, it is not noticeably less.

Lord Robert's Workshops were for a long time subsidized, but they now are self-supporting. The shop at Fulham Road makes up only orders that are contracted for. This helps to maintain the businesslike atmosphere of a factory. The men do not feel they are being paid for trifles but are employed on saleable articles. One never feels this is a charity. It is a factory, but a factory where they happen to specialize in employing men other employers have not yet seen the wisdom of hiring—a factory which employs 220 criples and which *pays*. I can think of no better way of investing money.

I was curious to find out how they made the shop self-supporting. Their answer to the question was the one word —machinery. "When you employ disabled men you must have something to counterbalance their disability. Many employers in the woodworking business in London use little machinery. Therefore, the Lord Robert's Workshops use machinery so as to compete more successfully with them."

We have some excellent subsidized workshops in New York, such as the Altro Workshop, the Crawford Shops and the Curative Shop, but all of these are for special groups.

The next time you pass a crippled beggar, ponder for a moment on this problem. We need workshops in this country like Lord Robert's Workshops, where the disabled beggar can again learn to work. Many of them will never work, but some of them are potential workers. Before we arrest them, let us ask ourselves, What are we doing for them?

British Labor's University

THE British Trade Union Congress had an opportunity this year to create a great labor university. The proposals brought forward by its General Council were the outcome of the generous offer, made last year by Lady Warwick, to give Easton Lodge to the trade unions for educational purposes. For some years the congress had been urging the council to prepare a comprehensive scheme for the education of trade unionists. Easton Lodge seemed, therefore, to be a very timely gift. It is a large country mansion, surrounded by a beautiful park, within convenient distance of London. The offer was accepted by the council subject to ratification by congress. Educational enthusiasts began to plan a college

Wortman in the New York World, copyright 1926

BEGGARS

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where the best young men and women in the movement could be trained for service and leadership.

First the question of finance had to be considered. To make the necessary alterations at Easton and launch the college it was estimated that $250,000 would be required. The council proposed that this sum should be raised by a levy running for three years of a penny per member. Everyone assumed that congress would gladly authorize this expenditure but after considerable discussion the matter was referred back to the executive by a large majority. Why this lack of zeal in a body that had always stressed the importance of education?

The main reasons advanced in the debate were financial. $250,000 seems a small sum when divided up among four million trade unionists but in the present state of depression the delegates were unwilling to undertake any new responsibilities. The miners' leaders declared that they must pay their debts before they could consider educational schemes however alluring, and their example and votes carried the day.

THE labor movement has not infrequently reproached the Tory government for making education the first victim in an economy campaign, but by its action in regard to Easton it has laid itself open to a similar charge. There are, however, sufficient grounds for a belief that other considerations, scarcely mentioned in the debate, played a part in the decision. British labor education has been agitated for years by a controversy over aims and methods. So far the General Council has not met this issue frankly. The questions concerned in this controversy are not peculiar to British labor. They are constantly being raised in one form or another whenever education is discussed the world over. What should education aim at giving the student? Should it give him what knowledge it can and then encourage him to think out a philosophy for himself? Or should it be concerned in giving him a viewpoint and the knowledge to support it? In England the first view is represented by the oldest of the labor colleges—Ruskin at Oxford. Ruskin stresses the importance of economic and political subjects. But it does not approach them from an exclusively working-class angle, in the Marxian sense, believing that dogma forms an undesirable basis for the education either of workers or the idle rich. While not disputing the legitimacy of this attitude the kindest critics of Ruskin agree that it has failed to fulfill the hopes of its founders. Perhaps the true reason is its location. It has imbibed something of the respect for tradition that still pervades Oxford—a narcotic draught for a labor college.

The other side of the picture is represented by the National Council of Labor Colleges. (N.C.L.C.) The original Labor College was the result of a secession from Ruskin of a group of students who felt that their class-consciousness was being neglected. In a dingy house in Kensington they thrust the sweetness and light of Oxford from them and eagerly devoured Marxian economics and history. No tainted culture for them! They even managed to discover an exclusively working-class approach to biology and geography. With the assistance of two large unions they kept afloat through the financial storms to which all such bodies are exposed. They formed a student association—the Plebs League—with the motto: "I can promise to be candid, but not impartial." They spread their influence with evening classes, correspondence courses, and a lively magazine. Above all they carried on a fierce theoretical battle with their parent Ruskin, and with the Workers' Educational Association, which also refused to conform to the gospel according to Marx. Incidentally, the Labor College produced A. J. Cook, the present secretary of the Miners' Federation, a man energetic, eloquent, fanatical; an inspiring leader in a fight, but no strategist and a poor hand at negotiation. From Ruskin came Frank Hodges, Cook's predecessor, a master of detail, with a cool brain and an extensive knowledge of his subject; but cautious to the point of timidity, a diplomatist rather than a leader.

In a recent letter to the New Leader, the secretary of the N.C.L.C. wrote: "The struggle between the W.E.A. and the N.C.L.C. is as vital to the workers as the struggle between Liberalism and Labor and has its roots in the same circumstances." There are, however, many enthusiasts for education in the labor movement who believe that this struggle has done incalculable harm. It has certainly hindered the trades unions as a whole in the formulation of a wide educational policy.

At one time the Council contemplated housing these incompatibles beneath one roof, but when Lady Warwick made her offer it seems to have dawned on it that such a scheme would fatally handicap the creation of a real Labor University. An entirely fresh start had to be made and the old traditions and squabbles left behind. Negotiations were resumed and the council was able to report to the 1926 Congress that Ruskin had agreed "unreservedly" to merge with the Easton enterprise. With regard to the Labor College, the report was unfortunately reticent. There is good reason to believe that the adherents of the N.C.L.C. were unfavorable to the scheme.

The adverse decision of the Congress in regard to Easton, whatever the cause, has left trade union educational policy suspended in mid-air. But the question will be raised again and again until at Easton or elsewhere a working-class university is created.

AN essential step is the adoption of an educational policy that will end sectional warfare. G.D.H.Cole, who has worked mainly with the W.E.A. but many of whose sympathies are with the Labor College, perhaps indicated the way in a recent article on his hopes for Easton in the Labour Magazine. "What will these scholars learn?" he asks: "And what will they hope to get out of their careers at the college? The object, of course, is not to remove them into another class, or to enable them to make good in the capitalist sense, but to equip them for better service to the movement and the class to which they belong. . . . In order to achieve this the college curriculum . . . must be neither too broad nor too narrow. It must not be too broad, for it must have a definite aim—not education for its own sake, but the equipment of the workers for power. But also it must not be too narrow, for he is best equipped who understands his enemy's case as well as his own and who has a lively appreciation of the good things of life and a power to fire others with his own enthusiasm. No working-class student is properly equipped unless he has at least a good general knowledge of Marxism; but neither is he properly equipped unless he knows something more than Marx and is helped to follow up his own particular bent, it may be in some form of art or science. The subject matters little; what matters is how it is taught and what is the aim and spirit that permeates the whole work of the College."

KEITH HUTCHINSON

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EDUCATION

The New Education in Europe

By BEATRICE ENSOR

STRICTLY it is incorrect to speak of "new" education, "new" art or "new" medicine. One who sees these aspects of the human spirit as "new" is looking, as it were, at a transverse section of a long process of development. All these so-called "new" manifestations are the products of an evolution which has extended over a long period and which is never complete. Seen with its proper background, the new education is but a process to which numerous people have contributed and which is reaching forward to ends which we cannot now foresee.

During the last hundred years the whole evolutionary process has been speeded up in every department of life. The increased contacts between the peoples of different nations have brought about a great dissemination of ideas which in turn have indirectly affected our attitude to education.

The high moments of educational advancement are brought about by two kinds of pioneers—the one presenting a new philosophy or a new method, the other, while initiating nothing essentially new, creates an original synthesis by gathering together all that seems best in existing systems of education and expressing them through the magic of his personality, around him a personal environment in which education becomes exalted and enlightened.

So, today, in Europe we have the names of the great inspirers, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Rousseau, Montessori, Decroly, Ferrière, Dalcroze, Cizek and others—pioneers in educational philosophy. In addition there have been a series of remarkable men and women who have founded pioneer schools: Dr. Cecil Reddie at Abbotsholme, England (founded 1889), Dr. Herman Lietz in Germany (1898), J. H. Badley at Bedales, England (1893), l'Ecole des Roches in France founded by Edmond Demolins and carried forward by Georges Bertier, l'Ecole de Glarisegg in Thurgovie (Switzerland) directed by Werner Zuberbufhler, Dr. P. Geheeb at Odenwald (Germany). Of more recent growth may be named the King Alfred School (London), Wickersdorf (Germany), Hof-Oberkirch (Switzerland), St. George's (Herts.), St. Christopher (Herts.), Ballenger Grange (Bucks.), Frensham Heights (Surrey).

THESE pioneers reacted against the artificialities of modern society and founded their schools in the country, emphasizing the need for a beauty and simplicity of life which would develop the *whole* nature of a child. Their schools were a protest against the tendency to overload school life with academic instruction. They introduced into their education a great many activities for the training of the hand and eye (and heart). They made their schools miniature communities in which the pupils learned to share responsibility and learned, above all, to understand the dependence of the community upon the individual and the individual's debt to the community—which is the secret of true discipline.

The new school is, above all, a boarding school in the country, that retains the character of a family, where the personal experience of the child is the basis as well for the intellectual education—promoted through instruction in manual work—as for moral education through the practice of principles of self-government. This is the minimum program. The maximum is defined in Dr. Adolphe Ferrière's Thirty Points and a school incapable of realizing at least half of these new school principles is not recognized by Dr. Ferrière's International Bureau for New Schools.

Modern psychology and the philosophies of Bergson and Einstein have contributed greatly to the changed attitude towards the child. Sigmund Freud, Dr. C. Jung and Dr. Alfred Adler discovered the importance of the unconscious and with a number of unanswerable cases demonstrated that life-long evils follow fear, repression, maladjustment and misunderstanding suffered in childhood. Binet, through experiments with mental tests, revealed the varying capacities which exist in children and provided the scientific foundation for the efforts of educators towards individual work, allowing children to work at their own rate and in their own way according to their differing temperaments.

Jung showed that human beings belong to four fundamentally different types, functioning primarily through action, emotion, mind or intuition and that, in addition, each of these types is further subdivided by introvert and extravert characteristics. How then could we continue to try to force all children to pass the same examinations at the same age and to behave according to some preconceived plan unrelated to their basic natural differences?

THE Great War and the post-war period have brought many social changes such as the freedom claimed by youth, the changing status of women and the home, the diminution of class consciousness and the dawning of the idea of brotherhood between the peoples of the earth. These changes necessitated a reorientation of school life if boys and girls were to be prepared for this rapidly shifting world.

It must be acknowledged that the great hindrances to the practice of the new ideas in education lie in the present economic conditions, which demand that boys and girls shall begin earning their own livelihoods at a comparatively early age, and in the fact that entrance to almost all the professions is through the matriculation examinations (or its equivalent) taken at the age of sixteen or seventeen. These examinations come too early in the life of the average child and mean forcing the powers of the mind just at the time when the storm and stress of the emotional life needs special care and adequate creative expression through arts, crafts, and the like.

The new schools, previously mentioned, are generally coeducational and self-governed. In them experiments are being tried with the time-table with a view to supplying the

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What Is a New School?

By ADOLPHE FERRIÈRE

1. The New School is a laboratory for experimental pedagogy. Its endeavor is to offer enlightenment and pioneer suggestions to public schools by proving the means employed by the results achieved in modern pedagogy.

2. The New School is a boarding school. By this we do not mean to state that the boarding school is in general our ideal. The influence of the family, in so far as it is a healthy influence, is preferably to the best of boarding schools.

3. The New School is in the country as this provides the most natural surroundings for a child. For intellectual and artistic development (museums, theatres, lectures, etc.) the proximity of a town is advisable.

4. Pupils of the New School live in separate houses in groups of from ten to fifteen which are under the moral and material care of a teacher and his wife.

5. Co-education in boarding schools, reaching to the highest classes . . . has been of great service in the mental and moral education of boys and girls.

6. The New Schools have introduced a regular training in some handicraft for at least one and one-half hours daily.

7. Among handicrafts, carpentry takes the foremost place. Cultivation of the soil and the care of animal pets are ancestral occupations that every child loves. Direct investigation of animate nature serves as a preliminary step to the knowledge of human nature.

8. Besides the regular curriculum, . . . each pupil must choose some kind of work, but the kind is left to his choice, and he then devotes himself to it under control of the teacher.

9. Gymnastics in the open air, partially nude, serve to develop the body, as do games and sports.

10. Journeys on foot or bicycle, camping out over night and preparation of meals by the children play a great part in the New Schools.

11. The New Schools seek to develop the power of independent reasoning rather than to accumulate memory work. Encyclopedic teaching is, as a matter of course, avoided.

12. The general curriculum is supplemented by specialization. This is at first spontaneous, through encouragement of the child's favorite occupations; later systematic, through promoting and developing the interests and capacities of boys and girls with regard to their future professions.

13. The teaching is based on facts and experiments. In everything theory follows practice, it never precedes it.

14. The teaching relies, therefore, on the personal activity of the child. This calls for close cooperation between the teaching of drawing, and other handicrafts, and purely intellectual work.

15. The teaching considers, too, the instinctive interests of the child. Between the ages of four and six is the age of varying interests, the play age; from seven to nine the age of interest in objects of the immediate surroundings; from ten to twelve interest centres round concrete persons or objects of a definite nature, it is the age of monographs; from thirteen to fifteen is the age for abstract interests roused by direct experience; from sixteen to eighteen comes the age of complex abstract interests: social, psychological or philosophical.

16. Individual work done independently by the pupils is research through facts, newspapers, books, etc., classification (according to a logical scheme adapted to their ages) of documents of all kinds, as well as preparation for lectures held in class.

17. Collective work is exchange and filing of documents, extracts from which are worked out in a richly illustrated note-book, the pride of each pupil and a perfect substitute for text-books of all kinds.

18. In the New School, the intellectual teaching is limited mostly to the mornings.

19. Only a few subjects are studied each day, usually one or two.

20. Only a few branches are taught during the month or term. A system of courses, so called, similar to those of the universities enables each pupil to have his own time-table.

21. Moral education, like intellectual, must not be through authority exercised from without, but must come from within, through experience. Based on this, some New Schools have applied the system of junior republics. A general assembly consisting of the director, teachers and pupils, conducts the school.

22. Where this perfectly democratic system does not exist, most of these schools are organized on constitutional lines. The pupils elect their leaders, or prefects, on whom a certain amount of social responsibility rests. In everyday life children prefer this supervision to that of adults.

23. A great variety of social duties afford effective opportunity for mutual aid. These duties for the service of the community are confided to all the little citizens in turn.

24. An incentive is afforded to those with a creative tendency, by the opportunity offered them to develop their creative powers.

25. Punishments or reprimands are correlated to the faults committed. . . . Serious failings are looked upon by the adults as psycho-pathological cases.

26, Emulation is encouraged by comparison with earlier work of the same pupils rather than by comparison with the work of others.

27. The New School, as Ellen Key says, is to be a "place of beauty."

28. Music in concert, singing or orchestra, has a deep and pure influence on those that love and practice it. The emotion aroused thereby should be familiar to every child.

29. The education of moral consciousness should be promoted in smaller children by story-telling.

30. The education of practical reasoning in the older children is best achieved by reflection on and study of the natural laws of individual and social progress. Most New Schools are non-sectarian, but nevertheless emphasize spiritual values.

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needs of the physical, emotional and mental nature of the child. Art, craft, music, dancing, rhythm, drama all have their place in the curriculum.

Co-education is an important factor in this type of school. We believe that men and women need a frank understanding of one another's differences and strengths, which can best be attained in a happy, normal, home atmosphere. Segregation is artificial and, like all artificialities, produces all kinds of undesirable results.

The new schools are small schools of not more than three hundred where the relationship between the head of the school and the child is very close. Schools of even three hundred are generally divided into junior and senior houses.

The chief characteristic of these schools is perhaps what one might call their atmosphere of idealism, of freedom and love—an atmosphere in which children eagerly unfold and blossom. The heads of these schools have often a kind of mystic genius for the understanding of children; their knowledge springs from themselves in somewhat the same way that the great poets have understood children.

Know you what it is to be a child? It is to be something very different from the man of today. It is to have a spirit yet streaming from the water of baptism; it is to believe in love, to believe in loveliness, to believe in belief; it is to be so little that the elves can reach to whisper in your ear; it is to turn pumpkins into coaches, and mice into horses, lowness into loftiness and nothing into everything, for each child has its fairy godmother in its own soul; it is to live in a nutshell and to count yourself the King of Infinite Space.—*Francis Thompson.*

One notices that in those countries where children were formerly most disciplined and educational programs most rigid, the reaction towards freedom and elasticity has been greatest. The most remarkable revolutions in education are to be found in Germany and Austria.

The Hamburg Community Schools[1] present the most advanced experiment outside Russia. In Austria, after the revolution, the government decided to give the teachers complete freedom to experiment and to introduce newer methods into the schools. This attempt succeeded only in so far as the teachers understood what the new education really meant. The majority were quite unprepared for the freedom thus thrust upon them.

ANOTHER significant gesture from the Austrian government was the turning of the old military schools into boarding schools for the best scholars from the elementary schools, and in these the new methods were effectively applied.[2] Austria has also contributed liberally to the changed attitude towards art teaching through the works of such men as Cizek, Gunther and Rainer.[3]

Russia is revolutionizing her educational system. She has developed what is known as the "complex" system, somewhat similar to the project method (see The Survey, Jan. 15, p. 490); she has founded many new universities which are open to all who can prove themselves intelligent and worthy of advanced education. There are numerous boarding schools and a regular interchange of pupils between town and country life. Russia seems to be seeking to keep her education closely in touch with the practical purposes of life, not allowing the powers of the soul to become dried up in academic deserts.

In Great Britain education has changed more slowly, the two most radical experiments being those of A. S. Neill ("The Dominie") who now has a school in the south of England where he received "problem children," and of E. F. O'Neill who is teaching in a state elementary school in Lancashire.

For the most part changes are taking place slowly and in a great variety of ways in every type of school. In very few schools, outside the new schools already mentioned, does one find the new education practised as a whole. In one school we find an experiment in self-government (Rendcomb College), in others experiments in the time-table, the original or a modified Dalton Plan (Streatham County Secondary School, London, Kirkstall Rd. School, Leeds, and many others), in another, dramatic work (the Perse School, Cambridge, the Holt Secondary School, Liverpool), in another Dalcroze Eurhythmics (Moira House, Eastbourne). There are also various experiments in well-known schools such as Oundle (made famous by its late headmaster, Sanderson), Bembridge, Stowe and Mill Hill.

IN the state schools the new spirit is also finding welcome, notably the Dalton Plan and a new method of teaching the three R's originated by Miss J. Mackinder,[4] the head mistress of the infants' department of one of the poorest of our London state elementary schools. By means of this method a class of fifty to sixty can be taught individually. Most of the new schools in England have a Montessori department. In a few state schools the method is used but the expense of the apparatus is a drawback to its adoption in government schools where the question of cost is always a sore one. In the Mellitus Street School, East Acton, London, the apparatus has been purchased by the teachers themselves out of their own pocket money. Dr. Montessori is largely responsible for the fact that the education of the child under ten has advanced much more rapidly than the education of older children.

In France education is highly centralized. The mothers of France will tell you that their children are working morning, noon and night, amassing facts so that they may pass examinations. They have no time to develop the physical and emotional sides of their natures. Such acquisition of knowledge is attained at far too high a price. L'Ecole des Roches, previously mentioned, is the only well-known experimental school in France.

Dr. Decroly is the modern genius of education in Belgium. Under the Decroly method the child's native necessities, such as habitation, food, clothing, gardening, animals and so on are used as a means of teaching him the three R's. Education is intimately related to the child's environment through which the child achieves his own education, for all true education is auto-education. This method can be adopted without extra expense in equipment and is gradually permeating the primary state schools of Belgium.

In the schools of the Hague a modified Montessori method has made much headway under the guidance of Mme. Philippi van Reesema and many model classes are to be seen there. There are also several interesting experimental schools of the new type.

In general, the new education in Europe is not so scientific in outlook as in America. The work is going forward but is not being reduced to statistics; we are not "checking up" our results in the same way that American educators

[1] See The New Era, October 1922 and October 1925 (from 11 Tavistock Square, London, Eng.)
[2] See The New Era, October 1923.
[3] See The New Era, April 1926 and October 1923.
[4] Individual Work in an Infants' School by Jessie Mackinder (Educ. Pub. Co., London.)

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are doing. Education as a science is not given the important place in our universities that is given to it in the United States. It is still largely a matter of personal genius.

The parents of Europe are not organized as in America. Various small groups exist but nothing to compare with the Parent-Teacher Association.

One of the marks of most pioneers in education is that they bury themselves in their schools and give all their energy and enthusiasm to the children, not going out into the world very much. It seemed necessary to form some kind of link between these isolated pioneers and for this purpose the New Education Fellowship was founded. After the war, when one was able to travel freely in Europe, one went into Germany and found here and there an enthusiastic pioneer in a school who thought that he had discovered something unique in educational method, something that would revolutionize education. Then one stepped across to France or Belgium or Switzerland and found another pioneer doing the same thing and equally thinking that his experiment was unique. To gather these pioneers together is one of the purposes of the Fellowship. Through its magazine, The New Era, which also has French and German editions, the pioneers are now kept in touch with each others' work and every two years they are brought together at an international conference, arranged by the Fellowship, for mutual refreshment and exchange of thought. These conferences have been held in Calais, Montreux and Heidelberg and have been attended by teachers from all parts of the world. The next confernce will be held during the first fortnight of August 1927.

The Fellowship has also established three Bureaux[5] in London, Germany and Switzerland. These bureaux are centres of research and information concerning the new education movement. They assist teachers who are visiting different countries and put them in touch with the work in which they are particularly interested. Next year the Fellowship hopes to arrange a special tour for American teachers who wish to visit the progressive schools of Europe.

We pioneers believe that the new education is contributing to the solution of the great problems of the world, for the children now in our schools will tackle these questions during the next fifteen or twenty years. We are facing serious problems of capital and labor, economic conditions and racial antagonisms. We need the new education principally as a gospel of the new social order. We need it as a means of so training our boys and girls that they will respond to these challenges in a big way, and in the spirit of brotherhood.

THE casual observer may not think that there is much advance in educational idealism from year to year, but we who stand at the centre of the world movement can see the loving fingers that in all countries are loosening the shackles that have bound our children in the past; we can see the heroic hearts that are pouring themselves out in service to the children so that in due time they may know the fullness of life. We ask all those who have seen the vision to strengthen the hands of the pioneers by joining such a movement as the New Education Fellowship. The future of the world lies with the teachers for now, as always, the "world goes forward on the feet of little children."

[5] Fellowship Bureaux: At 11 Tavistock Square, London; at Kohlgraben, beii Vacha, Rhon, Germany; at Chemin Peschier, 10, Champel-Geneve.

Higher Education

By FERN BABCOCK

"GIRLIE, there ain't nothin' grand in this life." Eloise continued to disillusion the group of younger girls who were loitering in the living room of the working girls' home after dinner. As I reviewed my experiences since becoming an industrial wage-earner, I was inclined to agree with her.

It was with high enthusiasm that I volunteered as one of the large group of college students who agreed to spend their summer vacation studying labor problems at first hand, following the Evanston conference a year ago (see The Survey, February 15, p. 547).

When I arrived in Chicago to get a job, it had seemed that all fields were open to me. Early Tuesday morning I went down into the industrial section of the Loop to get a job. Unless you have done it, you cannot imagine the sense of overwhelming hopelessness that is yours after you have tramped from factory to factory for hours, and have been told sometimes courteously, but often gruffly, that there is no work for you; have felt the looks of mingled scorn and pity that the employed give the unemployed; have realized that your last dollar is broken and that there is no job for you in all this vast working city. It seemed that I never would get a job because I lacked that one essential, experience.

"Tell 'em you're experienced, kid," a fellow job-hunter advised. "You'll never get a job unless you do. How do you suppose I learned my trade? When the boss asks you if you're experienced, tell him yes, you were a finisher in St. Louis. You'll probably be fired in an hour, but you will have some experience for the next place."

With the exception of a few industries where the apprentice system is still used, this is the only method of learning a trade.

About eleven-thirty, I passed a restaurant with a "Waitress wanted" sign in the window. I sought the manager and timidly applied. His only question was, "Can you go to work right away?" As I nodded assent he hustled me into an apron, and I was at work on my first job. Dorothy showed me where to find dishes and silver, and the boss stationed me behind the front counter. Before I had time to survey my new surroundings, the noon rush was on and my counter was crowded with a dozen hungry men, all anxious for food and exceedingly disgusted with the green waitress that Harry was breaking in.

I thought that first day would never end. When we were not serving customers, we were cleaning and setting tables for the next meal. Without the aid of liniment and much rubbing, I never could have gone to work the next day.

The boss told me that my hours were from ten until eight, and that wages were fourteen dollars and as much

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more as I could make in tips. Tips! How I loathed the fat men who pitched dimes across the counter at me. The other waitresses hated the tipping system too, but until wages are increased, it must be continued. The first day I made twenty cents in tips, but the last day the cashier handed me two crisp dollars bills for the change I gave him.

Dorothy and I soon became fast friends. Her life had been very hard. Just before graduating from high school she had married a worthless fellow, from whom she was trying to get a divorce. Her code of morals was somewhat different from mine, but as she said, "Girlie, by the time you've worked in a restaurant as long as I have you'll be hard, too." Her advice to me was, "Don't have anything to do with the men; it doesn't pay. You have a good time for a while, but sooner or later you're down and out."

After getting a job, one must find a room. The Y. W. C. A. was very helpful in locating me in a church supported home for young working women. In many respects, life there was similar to that in college dormitories. One difference was that the caste system that pervades the industrial world, as well as the rest of our American life, kept us from enjoying each other. Two students were living in the club to get "Bohemian atmosphere." Below them were the stenographers, who, although they earn less than many factory workers, are potential capitalists. Almost on a par with the stenographers but in a different group were the clerks. Last in line were the factory workers. All looked down upon the Italians who lived in the neighborhood around us.

One evening a woman tried to give away two tickets to White City (an amusement park), but they went unused, because every girl in the club was too tired to go. Efficiency systems may be increasing production, but they are also helping to grind the last bit of beauty and vivacity out of the lives of the workers. After frantically feeding a machine for eight or ten hours, the only thing a girl can do is to sleep so that she may work the next day, to pay for a bed so that she may sleep again.

To come into contact with the organized labor movement, I left the restaurant and secured a job as an apprentice in a union book bindery. The endless monotony of wrapping millions of cards into thousands of packages cannot be expressed. I was furious when after forty-four hours of hard labor I had earned only sixteen dollars, yet sixteen dollars was considered good wages for a beginner. The union scale for journeywomen is twenty-five dollars a week.

The spirit of the workers in a union shop was very different from that in a non-union shop. The bindery trade is a skilled occupation and I was made to feel proud of my job. The collective bargaining of the union generates mutual respect between the management and the employes, and creates fellowship among the workers themselves. A few unions are vitally concerned about bettering the economic order, but the majority of the workers with whom I came in contact are for slightly shorter hours, better wages and Cooligian prosperity.

Probably the greatest value of my summer's experience came not in the work itself, but in the opportunity to meet industrial workers and labor leaders and attend labor meetings. I came away from Chicago with a tremendous respect for the labor movement and the intelligent part it is playing in bringing in a new social order.

At the end of the summer the Continuation Committee of the Interdenominational Conference called together a group of twenty-five students who had been workers during the summer. We met at Earlham College to evaluate our summer's experience and to seek a way out of the industrial situation for ourselves and our friends in factories and mills. We tried to see what the application of the Christian philosophy to a modern industrial situation would mean. Is an industrial order that is based upon greater production rather than upon the development of human personality, Christian? Can one keep the point of view of labor unless he adopts the living standard of the workers? Should college graduates go into the organized labor movement, or are they more effective when they stay in the professional class and attempt to work through education and legislation? Wages can be increased, hours shortened, working conditions adjusted to produce the minimum of strain and exertion, caste lines can be abolished, but how can wrapping packages ever be made a job that releases one's creative ability?

We who spent last summer in industry urge all other students who want to understand modern industrial conditions and to know life from another angle, to become workers. A few weeks as a worker, shorn of the prestige that membership in a college group gives and faced with the necessity of hard labor to earn enough to pay for food and shelter, forces one to make a new adjustment of values. Honors that were once glorious and desirable fade into insignificance in comparison with the struggle for economic freedom. When more students have become workers, many of the shams of our present college life will disappear.

Teachers' Budgets

By Ruth Gillette Hardy

WHETHER an American public school teacher can live on his or her present salary and if so, how, is a question that is agitating the teachers, the taxpayers who support the schools and the parents of the children who attend them.

Into the sound and fury of the debate, Royal Meeker, professor of economics at Carlton College, an international authority on consumption statistics, introduces a carefully constructed Study of the Costs and Standards of Living of Minneapolis Teachers in Relation to Their Salaries, just published by the Central Committee of Teachers' Associations, Minneapolis.

Data on actual expenditures by teachers was obtained by questionnaire during summer vacation; data to determine minimum expenditure necessary for the proper health and decency of public school teachers in Minneapolis was obtained partly from the teachers' statements, partly from various quantity budgets previously worked out by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and by the Ladies' Home Journal, partly after discussion with teachers and social workers, partly on actual prices current in Minneapolis shops during the summer of 1926. No attempt is made to construct an actual salary schedule. In its stress on standards instead of haste to make a schedule it stands in marked contrast to the recent work of the Citizens' Committee on Teachers' Salaries in New York City; it furnishes a means of study and salary adjustment which, given investigation of current local prices might be utilized anywhere in the country.

Replies to questionnaires were sent in by 108 of the men teachers, 40 per cent of the total number, and by 541 women,

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or 23 per cent. If facts are known about any such percentage of closely similar units, the laws of chance would operate on so fair a sampling, but these facts pertain to salary groups ranging from $1,000 to $4,000 a year and to position groups from school nurse and beginners to high-school principals. The author complains that "the figures showing expenditures, surplus and deficits do not behave in the seemly, decorous, dependable and foretellable manner characteristic of phenomena subject to the orderly laws of chance, but behave in the irritating, lawless and unsatisfying way of primeval chaos." Apart, then, from showing certain trends, the figures collected are more or less abandoned in reaching the final conclusions.

The most interesting of these trends is shown in the table on numbers of dependents. In the lower income groups the women have more persons actually or partially dependent upon them than do the men. "There are far more unmarried women with dependents than unmarried men," Professor Meeker points out, "the number being 102 and 2, respectively." In the upper half, the numbers are sometimes equal with the men pulling a fraction ahead, but the total average number of dependents reported for all groups is 1.58 for the women to only 2.38 for the men, or less than one unit's difference. This would go to confirm the observations of many among us that as the "great family" of a simpler society is broken up, as sons less and less expect to bring their wives home to live, the care of the old people falls on the unmarried daughters.

This trend and the demonstrated cheapness of living, (and above all, of dressing) to meet suitable standards of conformity to what is expected of public school teachers, for the individual men as compared with the women unite to make as strong an argument for equal pay for men and women as statistics can furnish, but no conclusion whatever on this subject is drawn by the author. Pay schedules in Minneapolis are not equal and equality does not seem to be foreshadowed in the final recommendation that "it is imperatively necessary that maximum salaries be provided which will make it possible for the regular day-school teacher to rear a normal, average family on a better than a minimum scale of living." It is evident that this "regular day-school teacher" is a man; the estimated cost of living for his "standard family of five" on a "better than minimum scale" is set down a few pages before at $4,429, or more than any high school now pays as a maximum for a regular position.

ALTHOUGH the positive recommendations are progressive, including automatic advancements in salary to all competent teachers, the measurement of competency by impersonal standards only and maxima which represent reasonable comfort for the rank and file, one is disheartened to see how little effect statistical studies have on the prejudices of the human statistician. Not only is equal pay shuffled out of sight, but the dear old "standard family of five" is made the basis of calculation in the face of positive evidence that the average number of dependents among even the married men studied is 2.41, or a normal family of three and a half. Nowhere is the range of families about the average studied, but experience would suggest that this is as "chaotic" as the other measureable activities of "untrammeled, free-born American citizens exercising their inalienable rights to spend or save or go into debt according to the dictates of their own notions." The obvious solution of the family wage to permit at once a basic salary equal for men and women, yet within the means of a municipality to pay, and at the same time suitable increments for those whose good citizenship includes the upbringing of as many children as their health and courage will permit, is only shuddered at: "It is explicitly stated that salaries must be paid to positions, not to families." Why not? It just isn't. Ask no questions.

When will statistics, most impersonal of sciences, train really impersonal research workers, who can follow the leads of their own figures and dare to say: "Come, let us investigate these things?" The Minneapolis teachers are to be congratulated on having secured an intelligent study of present conditions; it is to be hoped that their membership includes teachers of vision who can disregard *obiter dicta,* even in print they have themselves paid for, and construct schedules based on all the factors in the situation.

RUTH GILLETTE HARDY

THE ROSENWALD SCHOOLS touch the lives of 404,190 Negro children in the South, not 70,900 as, through a typographical error, the figure was given in the Educational Department of The Survey for November 15, p. 216. On July 1, the date of the report there summarized, the number of pupils in the Rosenwald Schools was 393,300. Buildings completed during the summer increased the number on November 1 by 10,860. Additional applications under the current budget have been approved for 191 projects, including 166 schoolhouses, 19 additions and 6 teacher's homes, estimated to cost $738,785 and calling for $139,045 from the Rosenwald Fund.

ON JANUARY 1, 1927, Mary M. Pickering, R.N., will take up her duties as incumbent of the new chair of Nursing Education just established at the University of California at Berkeley. Establishment of this chair is the result of action taken by the California Legislature in 1925 at the impetus of the nurses of the state, whose advice was requested in the disposal of funds accumulated from the fees paid in to the Bureau of Registration of Nurses. These funds had been "frozen" for two years by a decision of the Supreme Court in 1923; with their release it was the decision of the directors of California nursing organizations that the surplus could be most effectively employed in establishing that heretofore has been totally lacking in the West, a foundation in nursing education for the training of teachers and administrators in schools of nursing, with courses directly in this field and correlated courses in the history of education, psychology, principles of teaching and preventive medicine. Miss Pickering will have the rank of assistant professor of nursing education; to take up this position she resigns the direction of the University of California Training School for Nurses which she has held since 1922. She herself is a graduate of Berea College and of the Massachusetts General Hospital School of Nursing. The new foundation is unique in that it is created by funds paid in by nurses themselves for registration fees and devoted to this purpose according to their own wishes. Other notable establishments in the field of nursing education in this country have included the gifts of Mrs. Helen Hartley Jenkins to the Department of Nursing and Health at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; the gift of Mrs. Chester C. Bolton to the Western Reserve School of Nursing at Cleveland, Ohio; and the grant of the Rockefeller Foundation to the School of Nursing at Yale University, New Haven.

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HEALTH

A Statistical David

By HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

THERE will appear in an early issue of the American Journal of Public Health an argument, and the record of amply supporting facts, which will be recognized widely as of the greatest importance to the philosophy and science of preventive medicine. Ira S. Falk, from his vantage point as statistician of the Chicago Department of Health and professor of hygiene and bacteriology at the University of Chicago, has brought down big game from among the biometrists and eugenists of England and the United States with his well-directed pebble of fact.

Nothing more heartening came out of the recent Buffalo meeting of assembled sanitarians of America than this resounding blow in the interest of the whole truth about infant mortality, and the benefits that follow, at least for ten years, a reduction in baby deaths.

Dr. Josephine Baker in New York ten years ago outlined the trend of evidence. By using simple arithmetic and her imagination, which came from long familiarity with the picture of child life and its losses, she proved to the satisfaction of those engaged in infant welfare work that the effect of measures which operated in the first twelve months were of enduring value as expressed in the survival of children at least up to the age of five years. Sir Arthur Newsholme did the same service as became him in his administrative capacity in England.

But common sense and obvious facts did not prevent the influence of the school of Pearson, Galton, Snow, Greenwood and Pearl from bringing the big guns of elaborate mathematics into play to cast doubt and discredit on the efforts of health officers and their many resourceful and determined colleagues, implying that to save infant lives was only to carry weaklings along and swell death rates later in childhood.

But now we know that if ten babies under one year of life are saved from death by the prevention of those two most serious of the communicable diseases, summer diarrhea and the common cold, and their various accompaniments, eight or nine other children between two and five years of life are also saved.

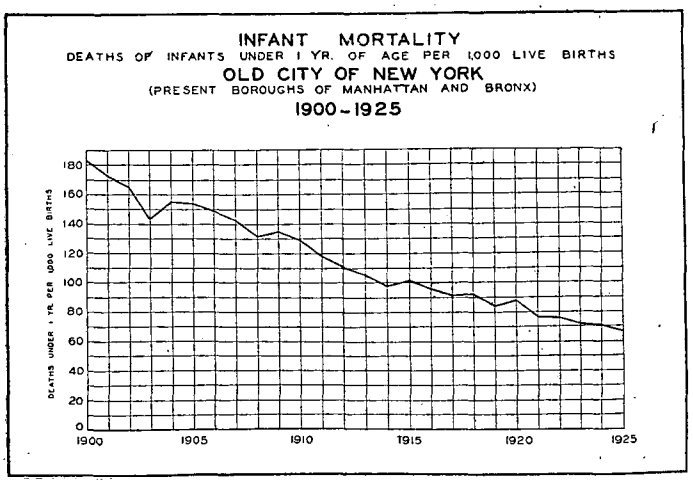
For every gain in the downward trend of infant mortality we may reasonably count on a further favorable change in the death rate of children during the following nine years.

Preventive medicine, as curative medicine, is concerned with saving life. No one has successfully persuaded health officers to apply sanitation in a selective manner with a view to salvaging Nordics, while letting "undesirables" fight their way through disease instead of being guided around it.

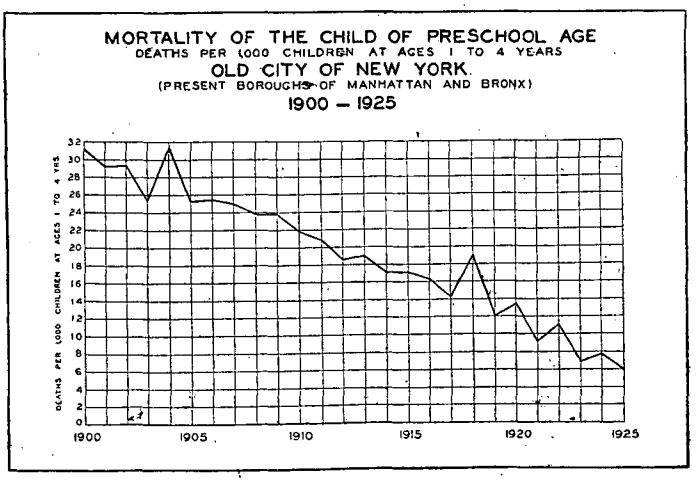
The most sensitive index of success in the health service of any community is the rate of drop in its infant mortality or its level at a favorable low point.

If this accomplishment be against the interest of our race or nation in the future, we shall learn of it through personal performance or failure of the babes snatched from the dirty milk and salivary kisses of today. Or we shall resort to honest study of our immediate experience which by its mass and uniformity gives fairly overwhelming answer.

Dr. Falk disclaims any immediate concern with eugenics, birth control, the maintenance of a favorable population balance. When we recall the truly colossal loss of life before the end of the normal term of pregnancy, by abortions, miscarriages, stillbirths, prematurity, congenital syphilis, we must join in Dr. Falk's eagerness to argue for the safety of the children born alive.



Charts based on data furnished by Health Department of New York City



Charts prepared by Research Division—American Child Assn.

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How delightful to have a master mechanic with figures show up the shallowness which has accompanied the meticulous mathematics of the Pearsonian group of students. "The mathematical methods which they used, however exquisite *per se,* were applied in a manner as thoroughly unjustified as their conclusion is unsound."

"It is certainly reasonable to assume that for each infant life that is saved by this or that public health measure, there are one, two, three or more infants who are preserved from sickness and consequently from organic injury that may serve as a secondary or contributory cause of death in the second, third or later year of life of the same infant."

Oh ye of little faith! Is it so soon forgotten that for every death of typhoid fever prevented, at least ten cases of the disease were avoided? Can you not remember the evidence offered by Louis I. Dublin that even those who recover from typhoid or scarlet fever carry the wound all their lives and pay for the disease by a shorter life? To save an infant's life from summer diarrhea means saving a row of babies from the severe but not deadly injury of such an illness with it's toxic injury of many tissues and reduced resistance to other hovering dangers.

"The coefficients of correlation are variously 8 to 26.5 times their probable errors." How can people talk that way about the living idols of a family! About the hope and concentrated symbol of devotion of parents! Truly, to confute the inhumanists of the Pearson, Biometric & Co. school, we must resort to least squares and the smoothment of trends. And our champion has discovered the loose joint in their armor—or is it the loose screw in their mental machinery?—and thrust in the fine point of his own Chicagoan logic.

"These figures mean that in the period 1910-1925, associated with each ten infant lives that were saved by reductions in the infant death rate there were 4.4 lives saved among children in the second year of life, 1.7 in the third, 1.3 in the fourth and 1.2 in the fifth year of life." Surely a goodly harvest and at little cost of effort; 10 babies and 8.6 older brothers and sisters garnered by the same machinery.

"It is plain that the data which were examined provide no evidence to substantiate the indictment of infant welfare work on the ground that it operates to preserve the unfit."

"Everything that has come out of our statistical studies tends to emphasize the validity of a dictum enunciated many years ago by Farr: 'In addition to the immediate accomplishment in life-saving, infant welfare operates to preserve fitness by reducing the incidence of damaging but non-lethal sickness.'"

"So far as evidence has been obtained from Chicago's vital statistics for the years 1900 to 1925, it appears that reductions in infant mortality have operated primarily in a manner to conserve the natural hygienic resources of infancy and childhood."

Laying the Ghost of State Medicine

By WENDELL F. JOHNSON

THE Toledo Academy of Medicine was thoroughly aroused. Stirred by papers delivered at their state medical association meetings and agitated still more by the alarmist speeches of their president, the local body of physicians had been led to envision the coming of the horrific dragon, state medicine, with the more general evils of Communism following close behind.

"Socialism, Bolshevism and Communism, the Three Musketeers," had been the keynote of an address by the president of the Academy to a meeting of social workers called to discuss the relation of social work to medicine. About the same time, the Academy adopted a formal resolution declaring their belief that free medical care was being given to many persons who could employ a private physician and demanding an investigation of the free dispensaries of the city.

At this juncture, the social agencies interested in health work decided to come together and discuss the situation. Obviously they could not operate free dispensaries without the aid and support of the medical profession. Furthermore, it was well for them, in the interest of good social work, to appraise their own policies and their own methods in a way that they had not done before.

The groups that met represented all of the free hospital dispensaries in the city, the Dental Dispensary, the District Nurse Association, the Jewish Federation and the general family social agency. The latter two agencies were included because they, of course, sent many persons to the dispensaries for medical care, and such patients were admitted without further question.

At the first meeting of the group it became apparent that, while no dispensary accepted patients indiscriminately without regard to their ability to pay for professional service, no uniform standards of admission were being followed. Each case was decided at the discretion of the particular worker handling the case. It was agreed that the agencies could best convince the medical profession that indiscriminate free service was not being given, by formulating a definite admission policy upon some sound basis. This then became the primary aim and a committee was formed to draft such a policy.

Inquiry as to the experience of other cities indicated general agreement that there are three factors to be considered in any admission policy; namely, the patient's financial resources, his requirements for maintenance of himself and his dependents, and the probable cost of the needed medical treatment. It became necessary, therefore, to determine a minimum standard of living and prepare a family budget according to that standard.

What shall be considered, the committee asked itself, the minimum essentials which a family or individual may be expected to provide before paying for their own medical service? The question was answered as follows:

Rent
Fuel and light
Food

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Minimum clothing requirements
Minimum housefurnishings
Insurance (policies not to exceed $1,000)
Carfare for wage-earner.

Granting this statement of essentials to be sound, it followed that free medical service should not be provided unless the income is insufficient to pay rent, provide minimum food and fuel requirements, supply immediate clothing needs, meet immediate payments on absolutely necessary household furnishings, pay insurance premiums on policies not in excess of $1,000, provide carfare necessary for the wage-earner in reaching his place of employment, and in addition pay for necessary medical service.

A standard family budget to include these items was prepared, based on a study of similar budgets in other cities, with local prices applied. The committee wished to be conservative, and so set the amounts at what they considered an absolute minimum. In presenting it, they emphasized the fact that it was not to be considered as a complete living budget, but was intended to include only those minimum essentials which a family must have before they should be expected to pay for medical service. Additional items necessary for an American standard of living for an independent family, such as church and lodge dues, recreation, books and education, had, they pointed out, been omitted from consideration, on the ground that before a person should spend money on those things, he should pay for his own medical service.

It was emphasized further, that the budget alone could not automatically determine the ability of a particular person to pay for a particular medical service, except in cases in which the income of that person or family is less than, or equal to, the amount which the budget shows is needed for those minimum essentials. Where the income exceeds that amount, the question of eligibility to free care can be answered only by the amount of that excess and the extent and nature of the person's medical needs.

The report of the committee, having been adopted by the group, was presented to the Academy's Committee on Clinics and Dispensaries. It consisted of two parts: a general statement of policy and standards, and a standard budget for a family and for individuals adrift. The first part was taken, with slight modifications, from a similar statement prepared by the Hospital Council of Cleveland. It was as follows:

Before an "Individual Adrift" is Asked to Pay for Medical Service, He Should Be Able to Meet:

(Weekly Basis)

Minimum Essentials	Man	Woman
Room and Board	$10.00	$10.00
Clothing	1.25	1.75
Laundry	.50	.50
Carefare and Incidentals	3.00	3.00
	$14.75	$15.25

NOTE: Additional factors, such as previous unemployment, present discontinuance of work on account of illness, and payments to dependents must be considered in addition to extent and nature of the person's medical needs.

Before Paying For Medical Service A Toledo Family Should Have:

INDIVIDUAL COSTS (MONTHLY BASIS)			HOUSEHOLD BASIS	
Members of Family	*Estimated Food Needs*	*Estimated Clothing Needs*		
Man	13.00	5.00	Minimum Furniture Requirements	4.00
Woman	11.00	4.50	Household Incidentals.	4.00
Boy over 14	13.00	5.00	Carfare for Wage-earner	5.00
Girl over 14	12.00	4.50	Insurance (Or actual payments on not to exceed $1,000)	3.00
Boy 11-14	11.00	4.50		
Girl 11-14	10.75	4.25	Light	1.50
Boy 9-11	9.25	3.00	Fuel:	
			Summer Months	4.00
Girl 9-11	9.00	2.75	Winter Months	12.00
Boy 7-9	8.50	2.75	Rent (Use actual figures	
Girl 7-9	8.25	2.50	Other Family Needs:	
			Per adult	1.50
Child 5-7	8.00	2.00	Per child under 14	.75
Child 3-5	7.75	1.50		
Child under 3	7.25	1.50	*** In computing food cost for family of 5 to 7 persons, reduce total 8%. For family of more than 7, reduce total by 10%.	

Total Needs for Month as per above $———
Total Income for Month..... $———

Surplus of income over needs should be used for needed medical service. To the extent that the surplus is inadequate to meet cost of medical service, free service is necessary.

POLICY—In determining admission to a dispensary, the needs of the patient and the protection of the community must be the primary considerations. The medical profession has a right to be protected against imposition by persons who seek in clinics the unpaid service of a physician when they could afford to pay for the medical care which they need.

STANDARDS—In determining the admission of individual cases to a dispensary, three points need to be considered; namely, the income of the patient or family, the size and responsibilities of the family according to a minimum standard of living, and the duration and probable cost of adequate medical treatment for the disease or condition found. Under certain circumstances, public health considerations must be the determining factor; for example, a case of infectious syphilis may demand immediate treatment, irrespective of what later disposition of the case is made.

The Academy's committee was evidently impressed with the thoroughness and the fairness of the report, but they asked time to consider it and discuss it among themselves. After several weeks they reported the whole procedure to a general meeting of the Academy, approving the statement of policy and characterizing as sound the principle of the standard budget as a basis for determining admission to dispensary care. To the great satisfaction of the social agencies, the one objection which the Academy made was that the standard budget was too low and should be revised upwards. It was felt, for example, that some allowance should be made for recreation as being necessary to health, even though the inclusion of such an allowance would, of course, make more families eligible to free care.

This action on the part of the Academy's committee demonstrated that when satisfied that dispensaries were

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following a reasonable and intelligent method of admitting patients to free care, the physicians were entirely willing that such care should be given and were glad to contribute their professional services for dispensary work. The social agencies felt that the committee had shown a fair and even generous attitude. In compliance with the suggestion of a more liberal budget, they revised the schedule upward, making a slight increase in the allowances for food and adding a small amount for "other family needs," to allow for some recreation and other unspecified expenditures.

The Academy recommended that the standard budget so revised, should mark the division between care by a dispensary and care by a private physician. In other words, even though a patient is able to pay only a part of the cost of his treatment, he should be cared for by a private physician rather than by the dispensary. The Academy opposed the admission of patients to dispensary care on a part-pay basis.

While the social agencies are not sure that this policy can be followed strictly, it is believed that the establishment of an entente cordiale between the agencies and the physicians has paved the way for an amiable settlement of the question as particular border-line cases arise. For an important suggestion made by the Academy's committee was that there be frequent contacts between the Academy and the social agencies in order to arrive at mutual agreement regarding any questions that concern the local dispensary situation. The plan calls for the reference of grievances to a joint committee representing both groups. This, it is believed, will eliminate differences that may arise, thereby promoting good will and mutual understanding.

Finally, the Academy's committee report dispels the physicians' fears regarding the abuse of free dispensary care and the social evils they had thought to be impending. Because the pros and cons of state medicine were not brought into the discussion and attention was centered instead on the practical questions involved, it was found comparatively easy to reach agreement. By the simple expedient of a careful analysis of the immediate principles involved in the granting of free medical care, and an honest effort to work out a scientific plan for carrying out those principles, the dragon of state medicine has been conjured away and the "Three Musketeers of Socialism, Bolshevism and Communism" have been effectually exorcised, as the most ethereal of spirits, the ghosts of beings that never did exist.

A Milky Way in Georgia

By MARGARET WHITTIER, R.N.

This is the paper awarded the second prize of $100 by the jury which judged the manuscripts on public health submitted for the first of the series of quarterly awards offered by the Harmon Foundation through Survey Associates. It is published simultaneously here and in the December issue of The Public Health Nurse.

AFTER my marriage I found myself fifteen miles from a city, in a Georgia mill village of some thousand persons, of varying and various stages of civilization. Coming almost entirely from remote mountain regions, their customs are primitive, their social impulses practically nil, and their ideas of health and hygiene like the darky's description of too much watermelon—"dar ain't no such animile." One family, in fact, refused to move into a newly built, modern mill-house because they were horrified to find the toilet inside!

When I had become accustomed to causing, on my trips through the village, more whispers and excited comments than would have been granted a circus parade, because I was "de Boss' Yankee wife," I began to prove again the truth of the old saying, "once a nurse, always a nurse," by answering eagerly calls for help on cases ranging from green apple aches to one case of suicide, and by investigating various questions of sanitation that came to my notice.

One morning, John, our Negro milkman, casually announced that as his wife had smallpox she would not be able to do my washing "that week." That started a fast and furious train of thought which ended in a series of questions which in turn unfolded a most startling state of affairs.

Some of the villagers had their own cows, some had not. To furnish milk to the latter, the mill had procured a number of cows which were in charge of the above-mentioned, ignorant, dirty Negro. He "cared for" them, milked them, sold the milk in bottles regularly to a certain number of families, and the rest through the mill commissary.

"Does John boil the bottles? Scrub cows and his hands? Use a milk cooler?" demanded Ex-Nurse.

"Oh yes—certainly! Why of course!" Confident Husband replied.

Ex-Nurse, being from Missouri, looked into things.

The cows apparently were never curried nor cleaned, and their bags admittedly were washed no oftener than the milker's hands, i. e., never. The milk cooler never had ice nor iced water in it, and was merely rinsed out after use with polluted river water. The bottles were washed with cold water and strong washing powders, in a dark, dirty-floored basement, in two slimy wooden tubs used also for family laundry. Occasionally the washing powders were not thoroughly rinsed out, causing the milk in the bottles to foam like beer. What happened in the stomach, I hesitate to guess!

Well—we knew the worst. Next came the relieving of feelings and fury by a verbal explosion, and then to work.

Confident Husband was first bewildered, then amused and interested, finally he arose to the occasion and not only backed up Ex-Nurse's plans but made better ones.

Two of the wives of the leading families were called into consultation; trips were made to several small but well run dairies in the vicinity, the Riot Act read to other amazed

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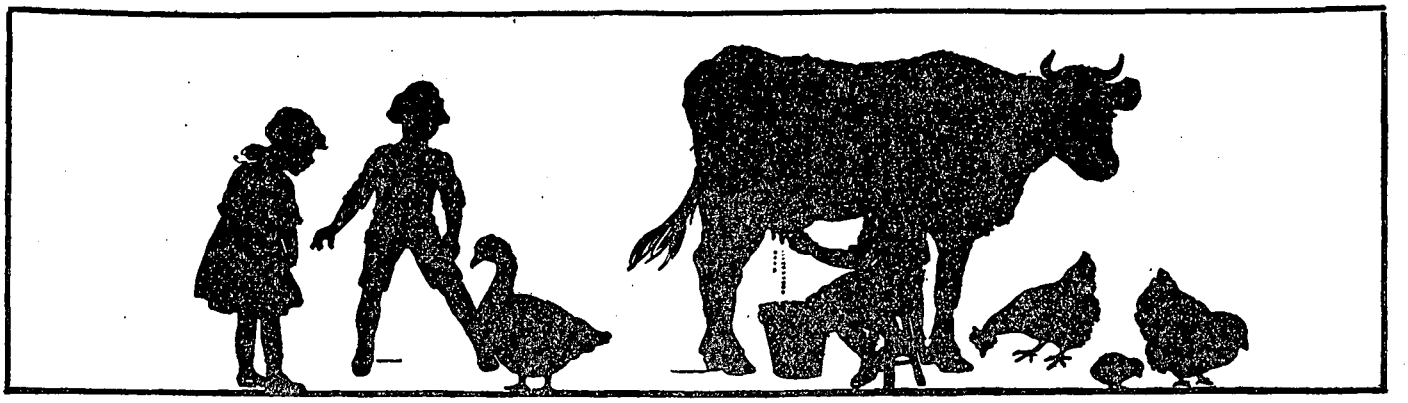

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husbands, and a Ways & Means Committee organized which drew up and presented to the Powers That Be a list of desired (and required) changes. These changes were made as modest as sanitation would allow, for the Powers That Be in a cottonmill dislike radical upset.

The Powers That Be read, gasped (remember they and their families were drinking the milk too!) swore a little at "that d— nigger," and approved, with the following result:

1. The cows have all been tuberculin tested.

2. They are curried, and their bags washed before milking.

3. A neat little building, nine by twelve feet, has been erected near the milking stall. It is gray outside and its washable walls of celotex are kept a gleaming white. Its floor is concrete. Across one end runs a sterilizing chamber with a thermometer attached, so there is no guessing. Part is filled with pegs on which to put the bottles, upside down, part is so built as to accommodate coolers, pails, bottles, fillers and so on. Hot steam goes to it from a sturdy little boiler under a shed outside. A door, plus a screen-door, is at one end, and just inside is the ice-box which is kept filled, the ice being used in the cooler. Two screened double windows nearly fill each side wall. Under one is a deep enamelled iron sink with hot and cold water, and an electric bottle brush; under the other is a table.

4. We have a double supply of bottlees, bottle fillers, semi-covered pails, strainers and coolers.

5. Three of the ladies—now known as "The Cow Girls"—take turns, a week at a time, at being at the dairy at a certain time each day, when a Negro especially detailed for the work keeps a fire going under "Job," the boiler. These volunteers wash, rinse and sterilize the bottles and utensils, and as we have the double supply, once a day is sufficient for the two daily milkings.

6. John has been discharged—no, fired—and in his place is a willing soul whose aim is to please, even in carrying out "other folks' fool notions."

So far, so good. We have only started. Some day we hope to have, in place of the "Amiable Nit-Wit," a graduate of an agricultural school, who will be in charge of the dairy and the gardening which attends the upkeep of a village. We talk of modern barns, of superior stock and—but that is another story. However, if this account of a very modest filling of a very real need should by any trick of Fate win one of the coveted prizes, another public health problem will be solved, for the money will go towards a long-desired Frigidaire. And if anyone who may have read thus far wants the above mentioned job, let him—or her—communicate with the author. The greater the applicants' knowledge of cows, milk and sanitation, the warmer the welcome.

Newsboys

DOES a newsboy suffer in health from his work on the streets in all weathers? Several studies have been made of the social background of boys in the street trades, of the homes they come from, their incentives for work, their play and their ambitions, but the study of a thousand newsboys completed last summer by the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association is the first in that or any other city which laid chief emphasis upon the physical condition of the boys. As the survey points out, the ideal method would be to study the boys when they enter the trade, and again, after a lapse of a year or two, to note the improvement or impairment. In this case, however, only one careful physical examination was possible. Its results, in the main, were encouraging:

"The percentage of physical impairments does not seem to be any higher than among boys who are not engaged in street trading. Certainly there is no greater incidence of heart disease among them. The concensus of opinion of the examining physicians was that this group of boys was unusually healthy, and that the strain of hours, weights carried, and nervous tension, seemed to be counterbalanced by the resistance to disease built up by the life out-of-doors."

On the other hand, the committee felt that the exposure to cold and damp which the work of a newsboy entails raises the question of the advisability of permitting children who are susceptible to sore throat and rheumatic infections to enter the trade. This group shows a relatively large number who reported histories of these ailments; and it is in the interests of preventive work, especially in relation to heart disease, to take special account of this factor and to see that all possible remedial measures are taken. The committee emphasized the desirability of periodic medical examinations of newsboys, perhaps annually at the time of renewing the licenses.

A similar study of young street traders, recently made in Buffalo by the Children's Aid and Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, showed slightly different findings. A group of 228 newsboys and bootblacks showed a higher incidence of physical defects than 12,314 schoolboys examined the same year, the greatest disadvantages appearing in visual defects and abnormal heart conditions. The much higher incidence of the latter reported in Buffalo (6.4 per cent in Buffalo as compared to 1.5 per cent in New York) may reflect different classifications in examina-

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tion. In New York the work was done by heart specialists who included only organic heart disease, disregarding immaterial functional disturbances of the heart. Buffalo, too, recommends stricter enforcing of the law relating to licensing of street traders who are physically or mentally unfit.

Both studies, like earlier surveys in Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago and Troy, showed that the very large majority of these boys came from "normal" families, in which both parents were living. In Buffalo the average family income in 136 cases in which it could be ascertained was $1,301.49 for an average family of 6.3 persons, very much less than the standard budget of $2,008.74 for five recommended by the C.O.S., showing an economic strain which may have been the cause of the boys' work. Both groups also showed a marked amount of retardation in school, 55 per cent in Buffalo, and 67 per cent in New York city. Analysis of the most retarded in Buffalo led the investigators to the conclusion that "feeble-mindedness is not the main factor in the retardation of the great majority of street traders." The New York study, however, declares: "We cannot conclude from the large percentage of retardation at school among these newsboys that it is because of over-work and physical defectiveness that they are backward at school. It is to be supposed, rather, that this group of boys includes two groups of children, those who are naturally dull and would be retarded at school whether or not they sold newspapers, for whom this outside interest may be a valuable means of expression; and those who, brighter mentally than the average child, do not find enough of interest in their school work and therefore seek outside diversions. . . . The fact that comparatively few of the boys entered the newspaper trade under the age of thirteen or fourteen years, even though eligible for licenses at twelve, that their working hours on the whole were seldom more than one, two or three hours a day; that few boys seemed to work at the trade for a longer period than a few months, and that their earnings were not great enough to add substantially to the family support, suggest that the whole question of newspaper trade, among children in New York city at least, is not so serious as is often believed."

THE CAMPAIGN against diphtheria is on the move in both town and country. Following two months of preparation, the city of Newburgh, N. Y., went on strike against diphtheria on November 5. At nine that morning twenty-three physicians of the city were on hand in public clinics to give free toxin-anti-toxin treatments. The streets leading to the clinics were roped off and a volunteer motor corps and free bus service helped transport mothers and children to them. The Lions Club furnished "treats" for the children standing in line; prizes were given to the schools which provided the largest number of volunteer patients, and Girl Scouts were everywhere to help as they were needed. Although 2,000 children had been immunized in Newburgh in the preceding two months, it was estimated that 4,000 more will have been reached by these public clinics in six weeks. A house-to-house canvass by 100 volunteers had been made to get the parents' consent, visiting every home with children between the ages of six months and ten years who had not been immunized previously. Endorsements of the effort had been obtained from local civic, business, social and fraternal organizations, while Dr. Frank M. Laidlaw, district state health officer, and Dr. Thomas Burke, local health officer, were the official sponsors of the drive.

OTHER co-ordinated campaigns against diphtheria are reported from the village of Cornwall in Orange County, N. Y., which has 700 children under treatment out of a population of 4,000; from Albany, N. Y., where more than 1,700 children have been inoculated during this year when New York State is opening its five-year drive against diphtheria; and from the villages of South Kortright, Hobart, Stamford and Jefferson in Delaware and Schoharie counties, New York. During an intensive effort in Detroit, Michigan, in October, it was estimated that nearly 65,000 children were put under treatment whether by their own physicians or in one of the 21 special diphtheria prevention clinics opened by the Department of Health. With the children known to have been immunized previously, there are now about 110,000 children between six months and ten years old in Detroit who are safe from diphtheria, but the Department estimates that 160,000 at the most susceptible ages are still untreated.

HAVE YOU done your Christmas shopping in Christmas seals? Once more the national, state and local tuberculosis associations point out organized tuberculosis work financed by these little gummed pieces of paper has cut the deathrate from tuberculosis to less than half within a few years. Not only do fewer people die from tuberculosis, but those who do succumb to it die at a higher average age, according to an intensive study in Racine, Wis., recently reported by Dr. W. W. Bauer, health officer of that city. During the first three years of the study, 1916-8, the average age at death was 26 years, while during 1923-5, it was 33 years. Help by buying seals. Tuberculosis is down, but not yet out.

FROM MASSACHUSETTS comes the announcement of a correspondence course in motherhood by the state departments of health and education through the state division of university extension, 217 State House, Boston, for a fee of $4. The course of fifteen lessons includes prenatal care, practical preparations for confinement, care of the baby and of the nursing mother, the sick baby and weaning. Papers written by the students enrolled in it will be corrected with necessary comments and suggestions by an experienced physician in the public health service of the state.

HOURLY NURSING SERVICE, a solution of some of the problems of the middle-class patient who does not need and maybe cannot afford a full-time nurse, and of some of the difficulties of private duty nursing, has been established in Chicago by the Central Council for Nursing Education, made up of the leading hospitals of the city, several score of Chicago business and professional men and women, and the first district of the Illinois State Association of Graduate Nurses. Under this plan one nurse will be able to serve in a day several patients who require only part-time care, thus increasing the nursing facilities available in the city and reducing the cost to the patient. The service has the endorsement of the Chicago Medical Society.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

The Place of the Volunteer

By ELLEN WINDOM WARREN GEER

VOLUNTEERS founded social work. Yet recently they have come to be regarded as a handicap by social workers. The reason for this change is not far to seek. When the pioneer volunteers found they could not handle the increasing volume of work, they engaged salaried helpers. When these paid workers realized the importance of their task the far-sighted among them promoted the idea of training and specialized education. With the resulting development of social work into a profession, the professional workers became the actual heads of the social agencies, and the volunteers found themselves struggling to retain a precarious foothold or left out altogether. Because of the unimportance of the work allotted to them they frequently became bored and unreliable.

Thus a vicious circle was set up—unreliability breeding an attitude of superiority from professional to volunteer, which in turn only increased the very quality which begot it. Is there a remedy? If so, is it worth while to go to the trouble of applying it?

One answer to these questions can be found in studying the volunteers used by one of the agencies, which, founded by volunteers, has never altered in its firm belief that they *are* worth the trouble. The Charity Organization Society of New York City believes in educating and supervising the volunteer so that she can meet the professional on some middle ground of trained enlightenment. Every year a course of study is given for case-workers who do field work in the districts for a minimum period of six months while studying. At the same time various special courses are given on such topics as child hygiene for girls who are too young for case work; the history and ideals of the C. O. S. movement for board and committee members, and so on. More important than these actual studies is the training which is given each volunteer by her supervisor on the professional staff. This educational supervision differs only in degree but not at all in kind from that received by the students in the School of Social Work who are sent to the C. O. S. for their field work. Each volunteer is allotted a certain task and every effort is made to make even typists feel that they are an integral and essential part of the whole machinery.

ALL this takes up a considerable amount of the time of the professional staff, an amount which it is almost impossible to calculate because of its indefinite character. That they consider it worth while is shown by the fact that more than one hundred volunteers are used every year by the Society, exclusive of the men and women who serve on boards and committees. A special member of the staff at the central office meets each volunteer and after thorough discussion of her capabilities assigns her to her niche in the Society. Last winter, during a prolonged influenza crisis, a volunteer who had taken the six months case-work course some years ago and has since worked as a full-time volunteer case-worker, stepped into the empty shoes of the assistant superintendent and proved herself so capable that only the initiated knew any change had been made. Another graduate of the case work course acted as first assistant to the extension secretary during a special campaign to raise a large sum of money. Among the less spectacular volunteers are three who enrolled as typists as they could give only limited hours because of home duties. One of them showed such ability that she was given an intricate piece of research work which she could do at home and which proved of great value to the overworked research department. Another, with literary talent, wrote all the appeal letters for a district, while the third organized the fresh air work for the 350 children in one district, insuring against duplication by writing to every agency connected with each family and then making a chart of the requirements and advantages of all the fresh air homes before assigning the individual child to the home best suited for his needs. These examples could be multiplied indefinitely. They show that volunteers repay careful treatment by numerous tasks for the perennially overworked staffs.

THERE remains one other purpose for which the Charity Organization Society has had conspicuous success in training volunteers: namely, that of board and committee members, perhaps the one indispensable function of volunteers. These advisory bodies bring to societies the broad and fresh viewpoint of the comparative outsider; they give a feeling of stability to agencies in which there is a frequent turnover even of executive members of the staff, and above all they act as interpreters in making clear to the public what social work is attempting to do. Never was this interpretation more important than today, when, as social work develops more and more of a technique, it becomes less and less comprehensible to the laymen, without whose moral and financial support it cannot succeed. On the board of the Charity Organization Society today are three young women who have worked up through the ranks, two originally typists, one a case-worker. Surely it is not unreasonable to expect of them an exceptionally intelligent and constructive understanding of the work of the Society and real ability to render its program appealing to the outer world.

The example of the C. O. S. proves that there is a remedy for the unreliability of volunteers—to modernize them by treating them as far as possible like professionals. But—there is a *but*. Many agencies, lacking perhaps the traditional faith in volunteers of the C. O. S., return a "No" to our second question as to whether it is worth while. They say that if they have to devote so much time to their training they cannot bother with volunteers at all. It is asking a great deal of staffs to add another activity to their already overflowing days. Especially when they have to waste time in experimenting as to the best methods to employ in the use and treatment of volunteers, or organize a training course

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Youth Craves Reality

YOUTH craves reality: life, death, love, work, self-sacrifice. It is susceptible to any appeal that promises an active part in a movement of reform. The home of the wealthy or middle-class is singularly devoid of the rapid sequence of cause and effect, of impulse and action, that is characteristic of the lives of the poor. Vital, dramatic experiences are present wherever human life exists, but education and economic stability tend to control of environment to thoughtful, deliberate action, and therefore to a slower and less vivid development of the human story.

When I was young "social service" was the open sesame to a world full of action. A world rivalling the Arabian Nights in its nonchalant handling of human life (both death and the creation of life); of stoical endurance of suffering; of unrestrained passion.

To us, social service offered not only a reserved seat where we could see the show but a part to play. We were told that we could influence these rapidly changing events. Of us was demanded only willingness to work, ability to win the confidence of the people whom we desired to help, and—the essence of volunteer work, not volunteer play—*self-sacrifice*. We answered the call and *worked*.

Volunteer workers in different cities were doing practically every type of work now done by the professional. We took the children to country homes; we played and sang with them in the back-yards of the settlements; we organized sewing classes, cooking classes, classes in manual training and every variety of club. We worked in the day nurseries; made thousands of friendly visits; we helped in the clinics; we founded the modern social service in hospitals; and we worked in factories, laundries and stores, that first-hand information might be obtained upon the conditions existing there.

It was at the height of this period that The Survey published an article on the revolt of the young rich; revolt against the protecting regime of the home; craving for participation in life free from artificial barriers imposed by affectionate caution. A life where physical strength, impelling social instincts, love of glory, pity, produced a definite result as opposed to finding an outlet in amusement.

Slowly but surely followed the result of these experimental years. It was proved that volunteer work lacked restraint, reliability and efficiency. In considering the value of volunteer work we were apt to think of the self-sacrifice of the worker as enhancing the value of the work; yet, for a young woman to give up a theater engagement to lead her girls' club in no way assured that the members of the club profited by the evening. In many cases volunteer workers were exploited; were welcomed because of their ability to give financial aid and permitted to attempt work for which they were absolutely unfitted.

The value of the work thus inaugurated and the inability of the volunteer worker to meet the needs of the situation were definitely proved. Steadily the volunteer was crowded from the center of the stage to the wings. But in thus stabilizing the work have we not unnecessarily minimized a creative and revivifying force?

And what happened to the volunteer? The majority drifted away from social work. Many became professional workers; broadly speaking, these were the young men and women of moderate means. Many of the "young rich" found places upon governing boards where, carrying out their ideas through paid professional workers, they reached the lives of those whom they wished to help.

What of the youth of today? Have we gone too far in our demand for professional training, limiting the amount of work that can be done for those who need our services and denying to many young men and women experience of the utmost value? Have we not taken from the volunteer worker many functions for which she is as well prepared as the professional worker? Have we left her work of sufficient importance to hold and increase her interest in social service? In my opinion we have not. Is my point of view warped by the fact that I too have become a professional worker, limited to one narrow field in which volunteer work has little or no part, though there is no inherent reason why it should not be permitted?

In the area I knew so well twenty years ago—the city crowded between the muddy Ohio and the steep hills—do volunteer workers still lay the foundation of new forms of social service? Still believe in the value of personal contact with those whom they seek to help? Still believe that social service is a little more than efficiently doing the work for which the wage is drawn; that self-sacrifice is the price we pay for participation in any type of work capable of forming an adequate realization of the normal adult's impelling need of making himself felt in the world about him, of fulfilling to the greatest extent every talent that lies within him?

GLADYS SELLEW

only to find later that a much better one was available if they had only known of it.

There is need for a third party—an intermediary whose sole function is to take over and perform such formal education as is not suitable for the average agency, to study the methods of agencies conspicuously successful in using *and keeping* volunteers, and from this knowledge to advise staff members dealing with volunteers about those problems of treatment and supervision which can be handled only in the individual agency. Why should this not be done by those who are most vitally interested and at the same time possess the greatest power over their own kind, the volunteers themselves? What better way can we find than to have the volunteers organize themselves into bodies whose sole object shall be to improve volunteer service in every possible way?

THE Association of Volunteers in Social Service is an experiment which is attempting to prove the feasibility of this ideal in New York city. In 1924 a group of volunteers were brought together in a lecture course entitled The Art of Helping given by the Charity Organization Society. They became so inspired by the lectures and the ensuing discussions that one hundred of them, representing forty different societies, banded themselves together into a permanent association. The Association is still too young to permit drawing definite conclusions but its accomplishments may be suggestive to similar groups or existing agencies.

The first two years have indicated that our greatest use-

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fulness lies in three lines: education, placement, and cooperation with other agencies. In a city the size of New York, before attempting to provide means of education, the most important thing is to ascertain just what is already available. Therefore a committee of men and women recruited from the leading institutions of the city, drew up a Compendium of Courses of Study Suitable for Volunteers in New York City. In addition to acting as a guide to volunteers or agencies who want to find out about training, it proves of great assistance in giving us (and other interested groups) a point of departure from which to plan courses of our own. Every effort is made to avoid duplication by steering our own and other volunteers into existing courses and promoting only such classes or lectures as are not offered by other institutions in a form suitable to volunteers. We also endeavor to combine with other groups wherever possible in giving courses; last year, for example, eight lectures were given on The Volunteer and the Neighborhood House under joint auspices of the United Neighborhood House and the Association of Volunteers in Social Service. We provided the mechanics of running and organizing the lectures, they furnished the lists of volunteers, and a joint committee planned the program. This year, unless offered by some other agency, we plan a course of general lectures open to volunteers of all sorts, followed by intensive study classes on such subjects as are not covered in the compendium.

Another interesting feature of our educational work has been the publication of the original Art of Helping lectures which were the inspiration for the whole movement. Over 1,200 copies of this little book have been sold and it is being used now as a text-book for volunteers in nearly every state in the Union. Books designed especially for volunteer consumption are practically non-existant, and we feel that there is a great opportunity here for some enterprising publisher. If it is not taken up by someone else we expect to venture further in this field ourselves.

Our placement division is more intricate and less satisfying than education. During our first winter we worked out a system which was tested last year and stood the test reasonably well. In the autumn, detailed questionnaires were sent to certain agencies (in a small city, they could go to all) which gave us information as to positions available, requirements as to hours, experience, age, and so on, and a description of the training offered, if any. The recruiting was then done by the Association of Volunteers by means of posters, newspaper and magazine articles, talks to selected groups, and personal appeals to acquaintances. (The last proved the most effective.)

Whenever a potential volunteer came into the office she (or sometimes he) had a sympathetic and thorough interview with the director and her capabilities, preferences, experience, and education were noted on a specially prepared card. The available openings were then studied and suitable ones described to the applicant. After deciding with her on the most promising, an interview was arranged with the staff member who was responsible for volunteers at the agency chosen. Every case was followed up by telephone or letter to discover if the placement was satisfactory and to adjust any misunderstandings which might have arisen. There is an indisputable advantage in having an intermediary between volunteer and agency to explain the point of view of each to the other. It is equally desirable to provide a central bureau at which all who are anxious to find work can come and choose intelligently, with aid of a skilled worker, a job which will really suit them. Too often the criticism that volunteers are unfit is because they are misfit. At the same time there is danger that with such a central bureau the agencies will not develop their own supervisory functions, and will not value the volunteers as highly as if they themselves had done the recruiting.

Partly to guard against these two dangers the Association carries on a cooperative service which seeks to popularize and make practical the various methods of supervising and interesting volunteers employed by progressive agencies. Members of the Association sit on most of the committees or round tables on volunteers of the various societies or groups of societies in the city, and we are frequently consulted about volunteer problems in other cities as well as in New York. Our constantly reiterated plea, "Treat the volunteer like a professional and you will be repaid," has caused a number of societies to designate one member of the staff to combine with her other duties an interested guardianship over the volunteers. Many are now admitted to staff meetings or are encouraged to form groups of their own. We hope this year to develop a round table composed of staff members of allied societies who can meet in the office of our own Association to discuss with our leaders their volunteer problems. Perhaps eventually such a service can be extended to each of the five divisions of social work represented under the Welfare Council, with which we have a complete cooperation.

SOCIAL work is no longer a "benevolent impulse"—it is a profession. But the volunteers have not kept pace. It is up to the great numbers of women whose higher education has rendered them impatient with their present lives to keep up this task of modernizing volunteer service. Not only would this utilize a great deal of human energy now wasted, but it would check the growing misunderstanding of social work by providing an able army of interpreters. With the incentive toward education and training coming *from* not *to* the volunteers, I firmly believe we can build up a body of far-sighted men and women who will appreciate what their professional brothers and sisters are doing and stand shoulder to shoulder with them in the ranks of those who are consciously striving to evolve rules of living which will guide future generations.

Training Courses for Volunteers

FOR volunteers in the vicinity of New York city who wish training through lecture courses, classes and courses of study, there is an embarrasing richness of choice, according to a compendium just published by the Association of Volunteers in Social Service (to be had for the asking from the Association's headquarters, 151 Fifth Avenue, New York city). Twenty organizations, including labor groups, religious, educational, health and recreational associations offer more than eighty courses suggested in this list "which does not intend to be inclusive of all courses which might interest or benefit volunteers, but is intended as a suggestive guide to individuals and groups, of the subjects which are most suitable and appealing to volunteers. Details of fees, hours, and so on are given in the compendium. Among the courses of general interest is that on Volunteer Values, given by the Association itself on Monday mornings at eleven at the Russell Sage Foundation; and the study class on case work offered to selected volunteers by the Charity Organization Society, 105 East 22nd Street, New York city.

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Salaries for New Recruits

By MARY CLARKE BURNETT

WITH the growth of professional consciousness the problem of "recruiting" for social work emerges as one which concerns not only the individual agency with staff vacancies to fill, but the whole body of social workers interested in standards. To obtain some first hand information on the preparation and training of new recruits, the salaries available to them when entering upon their first job, the writer circulated copies of a questionnaire among social agencies of different kinds in various sections of the country with the request that they be placed in the hands of persons who had taken their first social work positions not earlier than 1925.

Replies were received from 134 persons, and additional material bearing upon the subject of recruiting and employment of new workers was obtained from members of the association of Schools for Professional Work, and from the executives of social agencies. No claim can be made that this data represents a "true sample," though territory from the Pacific to the Atlantic coast and from New Orleans to Canada was included, as the sources of the material were not sufficiently scattered and the number of cases are too small for statistical soundness. The picture presented probably errs, however, on the side of optimism.

Five out of the total of 134 replies were received from men, and a bare majority (54 per cent) were from persons over 24 years of age; the oldest was 57. Teaching was the profession most frequently reported by the 64 persons who had worked in other fields prior to taking up social work; it was mentioned in 63 per cent of the cases, followed by clerical and secretarial positions in 40 per cent. Nearly a third of these people had had experience in more than one field before deciding upon social work—one had experimented in four fields!

CERTAIN arbitrary distinctions in training had to be made in order to interpret the material, since there is so little standardization in the work offered even by those institutions which are members of the Association of Professional Schools. Persons are counted as completing school training who have had at least four years of academic work beyond high school, part of which was taken at one of the Association's schools. In order to represent fairly the recreational field the Recreational Training School of Chicago was included, though it is not a member of the Association of Schools for Professional Work. Salaried apprentices who are carrying courses which, when completed, will bring them within this definition constitute another group; while a third is composed of those whose work at the schools is not equivalent of four academic years. Out of the total of 134, 19 per cent fall into the first category, 18 per cent into the second, and 8 per cent into the third, making a total of 45 per cent with school affiliations. Another 49 per cent are college graduates without training in the schools of social work, while the remaining 15 per cent have had neither four years of college, nor any work in the schools, beyond a possible extension course. As might be expected, the large majority of this last group (85 per cent) are more than 24 years of age.

Of those new recruits 62 per cent were working in cities between 200,000 and 1,000,000, while 25 per cent were in larger cities and 13 per cent in small communities or in county-wide work. Salaries ranged from $750 a year to $3,300. The accompanying table shows the correlation between salary and training.

SALARY	TRAINING							
	School of Social Work (All)		College Grad.		Others		Total	
	No.	*per cent of group*	*No.*	*Per cent of group*	*No.*	*Per cent of group*	*No.*	*Per cent of group*
$750-$1,199	24	43	26	52	12	67	62	50
$1,200-$1,499	17	30	20	40	5	28	42	34
$1,500-$1,799	9	16	3	6	0	0	12	10
$1,800-$3,300	6	11	1	2	1	5	8	6
Total	56	100	50	100	18	100	124	100
Per cent of total	45		40		15			
			Not reporting		10			
			Grand total		134			

Of the total number in the lowest salary group with school training it must be stated that only one had completed four years of work; the majority (20 of 24) were apprentices. On the other hand, school graduates hold 6 out of the 8 positions in the highest salary group; the comparatively high rewards of the remaining persons were in all probability to be explained by their male sex!

Although it is encouraging to note as far as these few examples are concerned that training does count in terms of salary, it must be remembered that half of these new recruits are getting less than $1,200 a year; though two-thirds of these low-salaried beginners are full-time workers and three-quarters (including the apprenticeship students) are college graduates. It is significant that social work is attempting to set up a standard of training (a college degree plus one year in a professional school) which is higher than that required for either teaching or secretarial work, while at the same time it must compete with these fields in seeking recruits. Ralph G. Hurlin's figures in the Survey (February 15, 1926, p. 556) show an unfavorable comparison between social work salaries and those of *elementary* school teachers.

An attempt was made to learn from the schools something about the economic status of their students. Replies to questions regarding the extent to which such persons are self-supporting and the amount of assistance offered to them in scholarships, were returned in only a few instances, and then were largely in the nature of estimates. In general it may be said that a fairly large proportion of the candidates for an advanced degree at the schools receive assistance in the form of scholarships, fellowships or apprenticeship salaries. The same is true of those who are working for certificates for which a bachelor's degree, though desired, is not an absolute prerequisite, though the practice of individual schools varies greatly in this respect. Those institutions which give training as part of the undergraduate curriculum offer a smaller proportion of scholarships, but

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several among them indicate that many of their students are at least partially self-supporting.

As far as any conclusions may be drawn from such fragmentary and inexact data it would seem that few of those taking up social work as a profession are possessed of "independent means." On the contrary, many are not even receiving their training wholly at their family's expense, and some start work saddled with the responsibility of debts incurred for their own education, or the obligation to help younger brothers and sisters to get an equally good start. This at least is an accurate picture of the students in one school with whom the writer has been in contact for the past four years. And, it may appropriately be asked, how is anyone to be expected to support him or herself, to save, either for the purpose of extinguishing past debts or of securing further training in the future—(*and* to subscribe to The Survey!)—on less than $1,200 a year?

Social Work Stability

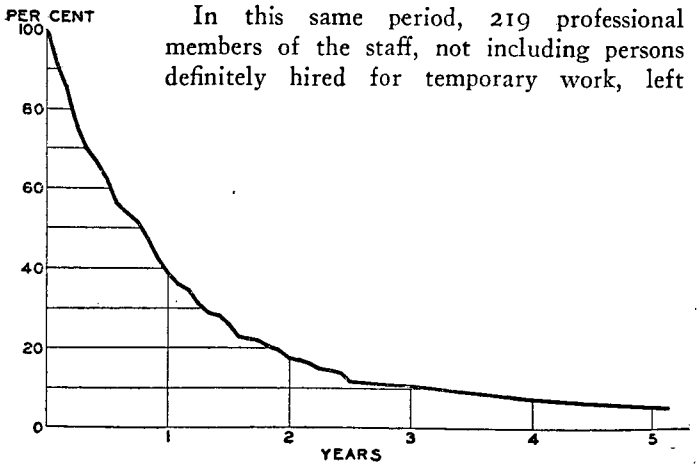
THAT the social work force is not a stable one is well appreciated by most directors of social work. It is probably true, however, that statistical analysis of withdrawals over a considerable period would be revealing to most social work executives. This note places on record an illustrative case suggesting the value of keeping records of the length of service of persons leaving the employ of social work organizations.

The following data relate to a large family case-work organization which enjoys an excellent reputation for the grade of work it is doing. The professional staff consisted of 63 persons at the time these figures were obtained. Of these, only eight had been with the organization for more than five years. The following figures show the extent to which new personnel has been added to the professional staff since 1921, and the number of those newly hired since 1921 who are now with the organization. The figures omit persons definitely hired for temporary work.

Year	Hired During Year	Now With Organization
1921	30	2
1922	32	3
1923	33	6
1924	33	7
1925	55	31
1926*	6	6

*Four months only.

In this same period, 219 professional members of the staff, not including persons definitely hired for temporary work, left the organization. Assuming that the constant size of the staff was 63 members, this would give an annual replacement rate of about 66 per cent, which is remarkably high. From the records of these 219 persons, the accompanying length of service curve has been constructed. It shows how short a time the majority of those taken into the organization to carry on its professional activities have stayed on the job. Assuming that all these 219 persons started employment together at a given date, the curve shows the percentages remaining at monthly intervals thereafter. At the end of nine months 52 per cent remain; at the end of one year, 39 per cent; at the end of two years, 18 per cent; at the end of three years, 11 per cent; at the end of five years, 5½ per cent.



Length of Service Curve

This type of curve is being used effectively by the personnel departments of large business organizations for analysis of their employment practices. It effectively summarizes past experience, and, if continuation of past conditions can be assumed, has value as indicating the length of time newly hired personnel may be expected to stay with the organization. Any large social work organization would probably find the preparation of such a curve instructive. The question which arises on examining this particular curve is, can so great instability of force be consistent with a truly professional kind of work?

Ralph G. Hurlin

The Florida Disaster

THE hurricane which swept death and destruction across Florida has occasioned, according to the American Red Cross, the biggest job in rehabilitation which that organization has faced since the San Francisco earthquake and fire in 1905, and the largest family social service program ever undertaken by any social agency. While the average agency in a large town carries from 5,000 to 7,000 cases in a year with a well organized, smooth-running organization, here between 20,000 and 23,000 cases will have to be carried by a force hurriedly assembled to meet an instant emergency. The staff numbers more than 300, including many leaders in social work from various parts of the country, with an average case load of about 75 families per worker. Henry M. Baker, national director of disaster relief for the American Red Cross, has been in charge of the operations.

While there has not been time to train workers especially for disaster case work, brief class instruction has been given evenings under the direction of Pauline Marshall, supervisor of case work for the whole Florida area. There are eleven area officers: in each a director, case supervisor, case councilor (who does the case reading and checking to see that all cases are thoroughly prepared and properly presented), a registrar, case workers, and the necessary office assistants. As in all Red Cross disaster relief operations, the real basis of help from the relief fund is the actual need of the family, and not the amount of its losses.

The enormity of the immediate relief operations is shown by the figures of the week October 2-9, during which medical aid was given to 113,200 persons, many of whom were inoculated against communicable diseases; food was distributed to 6,500, clothing to 4,650, and materials for repair to homes to 3,000 families; while tents were erected and equipped to care for 1,900 persons. The records compiled by the Red Cross six weeks after the hurricane showed 472 persons killed, 6,381 injured, and 21,500 families affected.

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A unique phase of the disaster relief work was the help given to the farmers and citrus growers of Dade county in salvaging their damaged fruit trees. The hurricane uprooted hundreds of valuable grape-fruit, orange, avocado pear and lime trees, and left the owners in imminent danger of losing their entire source of income. Funds were made available at once by the Red Cross and experienced workers assigned to direct the work. The trees were pulled upright by tractors, the dirt packed tightly about the roots, and the tops pruned. An expenditure of about $25,000 saved a considerable part of the citrus growing industry and insured the welfare of a large number of families. The hurricane of October 20 did almost as much damage to the citrus trees as that of September 18, and the Red Cross again went to the assistance of the fruit growers and reset their trees.

SPEAKING of relief as we were last month (The Survey, November 15, pp. 207-210) there comes the published abstract of the Philadelphia Relief Study recently completed by William H. Pear with the assistance of Emma O. Lundberg, Helen Wallerstein, and Ella F. Harris. In this abstract, entitled How Philadelphia Helps Her Poor, it is disclosed that the city of brotherly love stands tenth in a group of thirteen large cities in its disbursement for family relief per capita of population, which is $.51. Boston headed the list with $1.96, while the average for six cities of more than 500,000 was found to be $.858. Yet in the opinions of the surveyors, Philadelphia's need for relief as measured in the cost of living, increase in rent, proportion of unskilled laborers and of workers engaged in manufacturing, and in protection under the workmen's compensation law and mothers' assistance, is actually much greater than that of Boston. The recommendations include larger appropriations for mothers' assistance, an endeavor to collect additional funds for relief through the Welfare Federation, and the provision of a reserve fund for this purpose; and possibly a return to the policy of public out-door relief if private charitable agencies cannot provide for needs now un-met.

IN the field of child care, the Philadelphia relief study found that "Philadelphia's philanthropic expenditures have unfortunately been in the direction of breaking up the family. . . . Philadelphia's emphasis has been upon the care of children away from their parents instead of in their own homes." The more welcome, therefore, the Nineteenth Annual Report of the Children's Bureau of Philadelphia, which is not a party to such a policy. "Where good reception work is done," that report declares, "a relatively small number—ordinarily between 15 and 20 per cent of all children involved—need to be removed from their own homes." For those who cannot be kept with their own families, including a number of foundlings and deserted children, the Bureau has a very carefully supervised system of foster homes, at present limited by lack of funds to children under six years of age. In spite of the large number of children within the so-called adoptable years, only three were adopted with the Bureau's consent during the year. "The Bureau feels that the necessity of adoption in children's work is being greatly over-stressed. The permanent separation of a child from its parents should come only as a last resort, and this is true of only an inconsiderable percentage of all children aided. Though many of those who seek to adopt children are at the time eager to accept every risk, a child with poor physical, mental and social background should be tested and tried under good conditions for at least two years before it is offered for adoption; otherwise children adopted in haste are apt to be rejected because of deficiencies subsequently revealed."

IN THE SURVEY of September 15, 1926 (p. 626), June Purcell-Guild wrote cogently of Social Workers and the Law. Her general argument is followed with prompt and specific help, in her Manual for Virginia Social Workers, recently published by the Council of Social Agencies of Richmond, Virginia, containing a brief statement of the Virginia law and Federal law with which social workers in that state should be familiar. This manual is a companion volume to Laws for Ohio Social Workers published by Mrs. Purcell-Guild in 1921 and republished in 1925. From Oregon comes another useful publication in the field of social work—a compilation of that state's laws relating to child welfare, published by the State Child Welfare Commission, of which Milton A. Miller is chairman and George Ehinger executive secretary.

"WE should make every effort to keep children in private homes. We all agree that a home is a better place to rear a child than an institution," says an admirable little leaflet published by the Application Committee and superintendent of the Orphans' Home of the South Georgia Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church at South Macon, Ga. The leaflet, emphatically headed Please Read This Before Making Application to Place a Child in the Methodist Home, suggests the cogent reasons, sometimes overlooked, why orphaned children, dependent children, and illegitimate children often can have a better chance outside the institution than in it, thus leaving space there for the child who can be cared for in no other way. The point of view and the policy which it advocates are both humane and sensible.

FROM February 13 till February 20, 1927, the Fifth Pan-American Child Congress will be held in Havana, Cuba. This is the first time that a Pan-American congress of this nature has been held within a convenient distance of the United States and it is hoped that delegates representing private associations interested in child welfare will be present as well as the official government representatives. Spanish, English, French and Portuguese will be the official languages.

The Congress will be divided into six sections, medicine, hygiene, sociology, education, psychology and legislation. Twelve subjects will be discussed for each of these sections, two in general sessions, and ten in section meetings. Any member of the Congress may submit papers on any of the subjects. A few of the topics to be discussed are: the normal development of the American child; institutes of heliotherapy for the prevention and treatment of rickets; consultations for and education of the expectant and nursing mother; the need for trained personnel in child-welfare institutions; morals in the theater; state responsibility for abandoned and neglected children; the family environment—its disorganization and measures for the prevention of this condition; the need of a national educational policy; economic value of education in relation to individual output; main purpose of education in democratic societies; psychiatric clinics for children; child-study laboratories; the psychology of the preschool child; marriage and divorce in relation to child welfare; legislation for the establishment of paternity of children born out of wedlock; juvenile courts; and juvenile delinquency. Information regarding the organization and program of the Congress, transportation rates, and general arrangements may be obtained from the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

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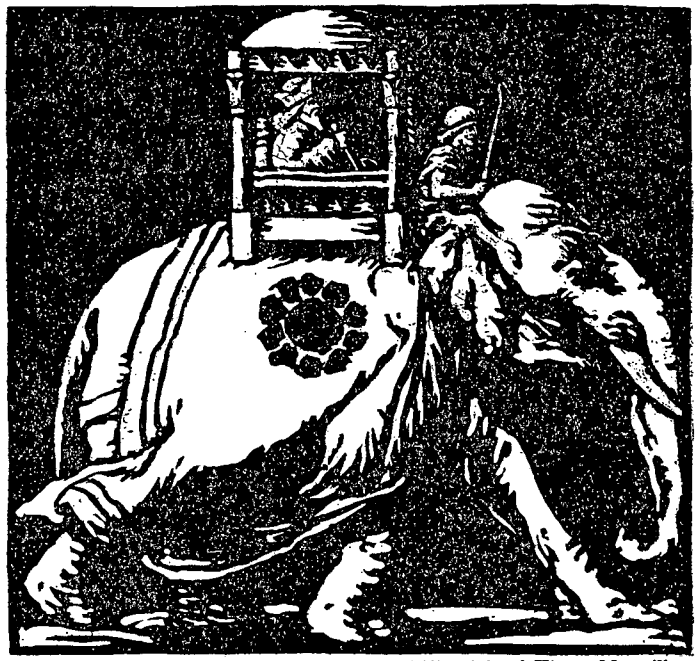

Design by Wilfrid Jones for the book jacket of The Epic of Kings, Macmillan

Books in Our Alcove

Can We Unmake Criminals?

DELINQUENTS AND CRIMINALS, THEIR MAKING AND UNMAKING, *by William Healy, M. D., and Augusta F. Bronner, Ph. D. Macmillan. 317 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

SO engaging a title as this arouses curiosity and everyone who is interested in the subject, and there are many now, will turn eagerly to the pages of this book. Let me quote part of a chapter. The authors discuss the general conditions underlying the present day methods of dealing with delinquency and crime:

"In this present work we are making a first attempt to estimate just what has actually been accomplished through society's handling of some groups of offenders, an attempt that at least shows the great absurdity of going on, year after year, ordering the same methods of treatment without stopping to inventory the effectiveness of the treatment. The data presented may disturb some complacencies of those who feel content to rest with formulations of theories, or of those who would trust in the law as it now stands and in the present types of treatment operating under the law."

The material used has been considered under the following points: "(1) critical analysis of outcomes of a large number of careers, (2) comparison of outcomes in two very different typical American cities, (3) statements concerning treatment as it differs in the two communities. From original case-studies are gathered (4) statistics concerning several extensive series of delinquents, adequate in number for some generalizations relative to causes of delinquency and possible conditionings of results of treatment.

"Utilized for this study are: three groups of juvenile repeated offenders with later careers traced: (a) a series of 920 studied by us in Chicago between 1909 and 1914 and followed up as a special research in 1921 to 1923, (b) a series of 400 young male offenders who appeared in the Boston Juvenile Court in 1909 to 1914, whose careers were studied in 1923 in relation to further delinquency, (c) a series of 400 boys, also repeated offenders, originally studied by us in Boston, 1918 to 1919, and very well known to us in their after-careers through our regular following of cases.

"For statistical analysis we used 4,000 cases consisting of 2,000 offenders studied by us in Chicago between 1909 and 1915, and 2,000 studied in Boston from 1917 to 1923."

The cases studied were rated on the basis of success or failure. The "outcome" was to be counted as a success when the individual was living in the community, without known detriment to the community and had engaged in no criminality; failure denoted actual delinquency.

When contrasting the results according to the definitions, Chicago cases versus Boston cases, Boston appears to have the advantage. The discussion of the case material with a few illustrative case records from the Chicago group, represents a tremendous amount of work which has been accomplished with the usual painstaking thoroughness and the desire for scrupulous veracity which has characterized each of these authors. The volume, therefore, contains much material which, quite aside from the use which the authors make of it, will continue to be of value. It is a permanent record which will unquestionably be consulted frequently in the future.

No one is more aware than Dr. Healy and Dr. Bronner of the difficulties which beset research in the fields of de-

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linquency. They repeatedly utter warnings against too far-reaching generalizations based upon the findings. In their own conclusions they have attempted to be conservative even to the extent of refraining from stating some of the conclusions at which they themselves have arrived, because of their determination to state nothing which they cannot support by objective evidence.

They draw two sets of conclusions. The first are "conclusions from the data." These are represented by the "astonishing figures of 61 per cent failure for males (15 per cent being professional criminals and 5 per cent having committed homicide), and 46 per cent failure for girls (19 per cent being prostitutes). The whole group of 675 shows 55 per cent failure. Thus in over one-half the cases in this particular series, juvenile delinquency has continued into careers of vice and crime."

In comparing Boston with Chicago, the authors find: "(a) A very much larger number of cases in proportion to the population are brought to the juvenile court. (b) Frequent appearance in both the juvenile courts for much milder offenses. (c) Undelayed hearings after arrest, always on the same day or the next. (d) Avoidance, largely, through this, of detention of the juvenile offender, except in a very small proportion of cases. (e) Commitment less than one-fourth as often. (f) Through the central juvenile court having jurisdiction over only one section of the city and through the court having fewer functions, much more time given to consideration of individual cases."

The success of the later careers of females seems to be greater than in the case of males, a finding which is contrary to tradition. "Among delinquents the mentally abnormal, both defectives and psychopaths, appear very much more frequently than in the general population; yet this must not be stressed too greatly in the light of the fact that for large series even of repeated offenders, about 70 per cent appear quite normal mentally."

One very important and rather startling finding of the authors is that the proportion of successes has not been affected by the work of the Judge Baker Foundation. In view of this point, especially, one must still regard the applications and the methods of the modern scientific clinic as a hope for the future and a trust in the validity of the scientific approach rather than as an expression of any demonstrable effect that it has on the existent situation.

Altogether important and thorough as this study is, it does not quite live up to the challenging title of the volume. To one not familiar with the actual case material and with the many complexities of the problem, and with the various technical methods now employed in dealing with it, little in this book will appear to be definitely recognizable as specifically affecting the making and unmaking of delinquents and criminals. In fact, whatever may be said of the making of criminals, from the evidence presented in this volume one might draw the inference that the unmaking is for the moment, at least, impossible. The reputation of the authors is so well founded upon ability and integrity that one must recognize the debt one owes them for coming out so boldly with what to them and to us must be a discouraging estimate of their long years of painstaking and self-sacrificing labor.

Since Dr. Healy originated this type of work in 1909 in Chicago, many others have come into the field and the work is expanding rapidly throughout the country. It is perhaps with this in mind that the authors are sounding a note of warning against the too easy assumption that the problem is solved and that the present methods of work are satisfactory.

In a chapter on general conclusions we find that they are not utterly discouraged, but see the possibilities of ultimate success. They still believe that delinquency can be reduced by intelligent and purposeful use of the knowledge and methods now at our disposal. In the final chapter their program is broadly stated, perhaps too broadly for some not as familiar with the subject as the authors. It may be a little disappointing to those who, after reading through the book, turn to these experts for specific advice. But it may be that the consciousness of the complexities involved have restrained the authors from being as definite in their recommendations as those of us who, in the past, have followed their leadership might have wished.

Undoubtedly this volume will prove of value to the many workers in the field of delinquency and crime. It will be read eagerly not only by students of the various sciences which have a direct professional concern with the methods and technique, but it will also be useful to the officers of law enforcement, judges, and public officials, as well as to the legal profession. Among the laymen now interested in this field there will be many who have the scientific qualifications necessary to enable them to read the book with profit.

HERMAN M. ADLER, M.D.

Director, Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, Chicago.

Life and Liquor

ALCOHOL AND LONGEVITY, *by Raymond Pearl. Alfred A. Knopf. 273 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey*

PROFESSOR PEARL'S latest work is primarily a monograph offering a very painstaking piece of biometric investigation, accompanied by a careful consideration of existing literature and a discussion of his own conclusions. What distinguishes it from other monographs is Dr. Pearl's vivid and attractive literary style, which somewhat overcomes the heavy character of the material and the highly complicated methods of analysis. Since the reviewer, with his quarter century experience in statistics, found it rather strenuous reading, he suspects the lay reader will give more skips than stops, for a critical analysis would be possible only for an expert biometrician, mathematical statistician and actuary combined. A cynical statistician once said that he was suspicious of all social statistics which proved anything but

Illustration by Lucy Sprague Mitchell for her book, Horses Now and Long Ago, Harcourt, Brace and Co.

MRS. MURPHY

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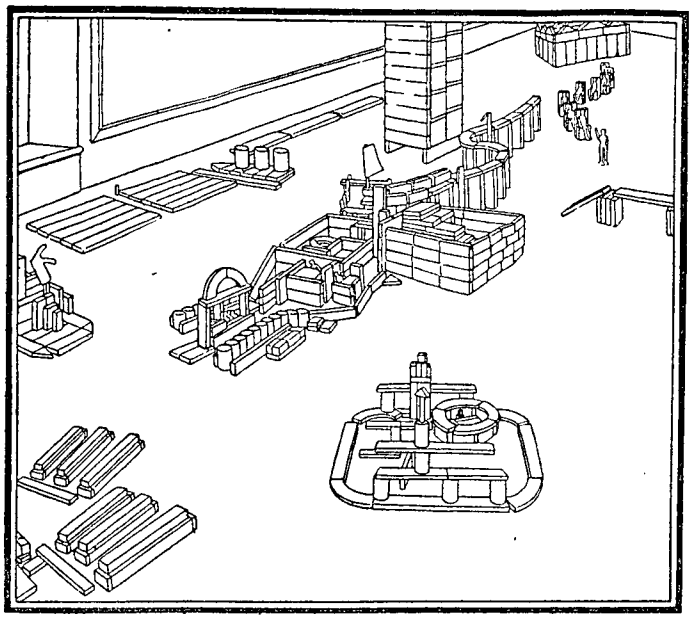

Illustration by Wilfrid Jones for Before Books, Adelphi Co.

the obvious. We nevertheless rejoice to obtain a scientific corroboration of views held most unscientifically.

Professor Pearl's essential thesis is fairly well established within the limits of its rather moderate amount of material, for 150,000 years of exposure would not be considered by an actuary very much on which to compute mortality rates and life probabilities, particularly when distributed between sex, age, and other groupings. The thesis is that there is a difference in mortality rates and life probabilities between total abstainers and drinkers when all those who use alcohol to any extent are grouped together, but that this difference is due only to the high mortality and short life probabilities of heavy and steady drinkers; that if this comparatively small group is taken out of the entire group, leaving the moderate drinkers, then the group of heavy drinkers will show a heavier mortality and a shorter probability, but between the abstainers and moderate drinkers no difference is to be found. After all, this is but the generally accepted conclusion of all sane persons and the public at large which condemns the heavy drinker and cheerfully accepts the moderate one. Surely, whatever we may say or preach, we act collectively as if we believed that the occasional consumption of moderate amounts of alcohol is neither to be feared nor condemned.

Ostensibly Dr. Pearl's figures show even more. The table on page 113, indicates that when *expectation of life* is computed there is a small difference in favor of moderate drinkers over abbstainers. The reviewer is not concerned with the ethics of this conclusion, but he can't help noting how gleefully these conclusions are heralded by our good friend, Mr. Mencken, in his review of Pearl's book in the December American Mercury. Mr. Mencken disregards, however, the contradictory evidence on page 123, that *mortality rates* for moderate drinkers between the ages of 30 and 60 are higher than for abstainers. Apparently prejudices are not limited to prohibitionists, but may be found even among their most rational opponents. One is a little surprised, however, to find even in Professor Pearl the tendency to emphasize the evidence in favor of moderates in the computation of life expectations and to minimize the opposite difference when speaking of mortality rates.

As the reviewer cannot possibly be considered a prohibition partisan, he may allow himself one further observation. When the general conclusions are drawn by Professor Pearl, the necessaray attitude of scientific aloofness vanishes. Granting the absolute accuracy of his actuarial conclusions, there is no scientific basis for the following statement: "The social problem presented by alcohol seems to be made to resolve itself finally into a matter of taste." If prohibition is to be fought, modified, or recalled it should be done only after proper consideration of all factors. The effect of moderate and occasional drinking upon longevity may be nil, but that is not the all inclusive nor even the most important argument upon which prohibition was based. The ethical, social, economic, and even esthetic consequences must be studied and measured. Moreover, heavy and steady drinkers must be recruited from moderate and occasional ones. Professor Pearl records that out of some 5,000 persons observed, only 55 "shifted from more to less drinking" and only 26 "shifted from less to more drinking." We are rather at a loss to understand the latter statement, for it is unthinkable that the 912 persons classified as heavy drinkers (whether occasional or steady) have developed their habit over night. No system of statistical record or investigation could give a complete picture of the process that must have taken place before heavy drinking had developed. But one thing is quite certain: that for some time after "the birth trauma" the little innocents were not consuming alcohol in any quantity.

For those who have the necessary equipment to read the book, it is highly recommended. Of course the professional vital statistician needs no urging to read Professor Pearl's epoch-making works.

I. M. Rubinow

Why Mothers Work

MOTHERS IN INDUSTRY, *by Gwendolyn S. Hughes. New Republic, Inc. 265 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is a study of one of the most deep-seated problems of our modern industrial life: it is not that the working mother is new to industry but that she is entering it in increasingly large numbers. The author of this book together with her co-workers and advisers of the Carola Woenhoffer Graduate School at Bryn Mawr, are to be congratulated on their human and intimate approach to this study of 728 working mothers, a cross section of Philadelphia's industrial women workers. Theory and emotion, usually so potent in any discussion of this question, have happily been disregarded and the whole presentation is marked by a lack of bias and prejudice.

The reasons why these women are in industry, based on their own statements, represent one of the most interesting findings of the study. Practically 89 per cent of the mothers worked because of economic necessity. Their contribution to the family budget in some cases was needed to meet emergencies, such as illness and unemployment. But the larger proportion were forced to work to meet just the ordinary running expenses of the household. The mother was jointly responsible for providing the money income of the family, and if she did not work the family could not support itself. A small proportion (11 per cent) went to work from personal preference for work outside the home. To some of these it meant an escape from the daily drudgery and routine of housework. To others, it meant a desire to be economically independent of their husbands.

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The kind of work which married women do, the length of their working day, their wages, differ little or not at all from the lot of their unmarried sisters—but who does the housework? Of course the fact that much prepared food can be purchased from a nearby grocer, that ready-made clothing can be bought cheaply means that the actual work of the mother in the home has to a certain extent shrunk, but her duties have by no means ceased. She carries two responsibilities in two different places. This combination is made possible either through part-time work, through boarding with another family, through the cooperation of relatives and neighbors, or by carrying the double burden alone. Few mothers, however, combine a full-time job with the entire responsibility of the home.

The study concludes that the effects of wage-earning, as practised by these mothers, do not warrant any interference with their activities. These women have the same ideals of health, education, child-care and family responsibility which seem to prevail in any community. The conditions which exist in their homes cannot be charged exclusively to wage-earning; many other factors enter in, as is the case in any workingman's family.

The continued presence of women in industry after marriage necessitates a new attitude towards wage-earning women. They are not temporary workers, nor does marriage put an end to their industrial experience. If the study had done nothing more than to emphasize this one point, it would have been worth while. The author pertinently suggests that when women clearly recognize this, the principal obstacle to their solidarity will have been removed.

It is very much to be regretted that findings such as these cannot be compared with similar studies of groups in a different economic status. Are the homes and children of working mothers suffering more or less than the homes and children of mothers who are better off financially? Unfortunately, no such information is available. However, Miss Hughes and her associates have made a real contribution in presenting in a thorough and readable manner, a picture of the social and economic problems of the mother who earns.

NELLE SWARTZ

Director, Bureau of Women in Industry, New York Department of Labor.

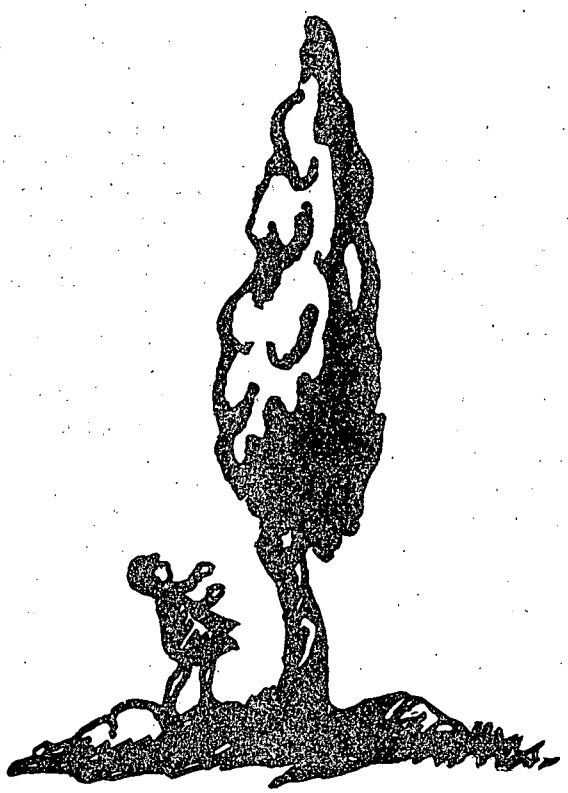

Illustration from Taxis and Toadstools by Rachel Field, Doubleday, Page & Co.

THE ELF TREE

Books for Short Stockings

HORSES NOW AND LONG AGO, *by Lucy Sprague Mitchell. Harcourt Brace and Co. 343 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
MODERN ALADDINS AND THEIR MAGIC. *Charles E. Rush and Amy Winslow, with an introduction by Meredith Nicholson. Little Brown. 318 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
LITTLE MACHINERY, *by Mary Liddell. Doubleday, Page. 62 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE EPIC OF KINGS, *rediscovered and illustrated by Wilfrid Jones. Macmillan. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
SKUNNY WUNDY AND OTHER INDIAN TALES, *by Arthur C. Parker (Gawaso Wannch). Doran. 262 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE DONEGAL WONDER BOOK, *by Seumas MacManus. Stokes. 284 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
WINNIE-THE-POOH, *by A. A. Milne. Dutton. 158 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
TAXIS AND TOADSTOOLS, *by Rachel Field. Doubleday, Page. 129 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE "new education," which makes allies of all the arts and all the crafts in its efforts to make children happily at home in this their world, has perhaps made its influence most clearly expressed in the new books that publishers offer for boys and girls. As one looks over the Christmas offerings, one finds, alas, almost as many trite and foolish and empty books as ever, badly written, badly illustrated and badly made. But at the same time, there is cause for hope and thanksgiving in the new books of meaning and beauty prepared for the delight, and incidentally, for the wholesome nourishment of childish minds.

These treasure books seem to this reviewer to be of two general kinds. In one pile, it is possible to place the books about the "here and now," books that make children more familiar with the everyday things they see all about them. On the top of this pile, belongs Horses Now and Long Ago, by Lucy Sprague Mitchell, of the Bureau of Educational Experiments and the City and Country School. Facts about horses and stories about horses are pleasantly mingled, with pictures of all sorts of horses, from Dan who pulls the coal truck to little Eohippus on the tertiary rocks. For the most part, the book is admirably written, though the six-year-old I know best objects to the jingles in the midst of prose paragraphs! "For Danny is three and mighty is he, powerful as a bull. High is his crest and deep is his chest, strong to work and to pull." These, this small critic considers "extremely silly."

Modern Aladdins and Their Magic tells of how common, everyday things came to be—paper, pencils, varnish, china, scissors. It is intelligently planned and illustrated, and written as a child's book should be written, with charm and clearness and dignity. Rachel Field had the excellent idea of making poems for children out of what they see and know rather than out of the usual, fanciful stuff of poetry. She sings with the children about taxis and how

> They roll along the avenue
> Like spools of colored thread.

And she wonders,

> Do skyscrapers ever grow tired
> Of holding themselves up high?
> Do they ever shiver on frosty nights
> With their tops against the sky?

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Illustration from Taxis and Toadstools by Rachel Field, Doubleday, Page & Co.
THE ICE CREAM MAN

And for very small moderns there is Little Machinery, surely one of the most delectable books ever written. For Little Machinery "grew up out of some pieces of a steam engine that was in a wreck, an old trolley car that couldn't run any more and a broken automobile."

The other heap of treasure books would be those that take the old folk tales and re-tell them, illustrate them, and give them back to the children of today. Such a volume is Wilfrid Jones's The Epic of Kings, Hero Tales of Ancient Persia, "retold from Firdusi's Shah Nemeh," surely as beautiful a book as ever was made. Skunny Wundy is a book of Indian stories, retold by an Indian writer who heard many of them as a boy from "the famous tribal story tellers." The illustrations are by no means worthy of the fascinating text.

Another writer who gives us tales out of his own rich and well loved background is Seumas MacManus, whose Donegal tales have the freshness and haunting charm of the Irish glens in which they grew.

Of all the books not to overlook, there is Winnie-the-Pooh, for the children from three to ninety-three. Pedagogic skill, the last refinements of modern psychology, the oldest, fairest, most fanciful tales of all the ages can give nothing so rare as this—a book written from the heart of a child, of the glamerous, adventurous world to which children, now and then, escape from the noise and dust and dullness of the world of every day.

BEULAH AMIDON

Illustration from the Epic of Kings, Macmillan

When Children Work

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF CHILDREN AT WORK AND IN SCOOL BETWEEN THE AGES OF FOURTEEN AND EIGHTEEN YEARS, *by Helen Thompson Woolley. Macmillan. 762 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"WHEN we first began the present study," Mrs. Woolley writes, "our chief interest was that of attempting to determine the effect of industrial life upon children who left school and entered industry as early as the law permitted. Now that our study is complete, we find that very few of the facts obtained offer any possibility of unequivocal statements on this point. The great superiority, both physical and mental, of school children over working children might be taken as proof of the bad effects of industry upon working children, were it not for the fact that the differences are present in marked form at fourteen years, before any of the children have actually entered industry."

To assay the quality of human material at a given moment is difficult enough, but to attempt to measure the results of the wear and tear of different bits of environment on it over a period of years is probably as stiff a task as can now be assumed in the field of social science. That this pioneer study has not yielded an immediate and complete answer to Mrs. Woolley's question must be taken as an evidence of the honesty and caution which characterize it.

For a period covering ten years Mrs. Woolley and her associates in Cincinnati systematically collected data and worked on a study of the physical and mental measures of two groups of adolescent children, one at work and the other in school. Only native-born white children were selected to compose the school-leaving group of 753 children. They were examined at the age of fourteen, when they were getting their working papers, and were tested each year thereafter to the age of eighteen. The control group of 760 children, who at fourteen announced their intention to remain in school, proved to be much harder to manage because many of them did not carry out their intention. It was necessary when the children were sixteen years old to add 211 more to the greatly depleted school group. Of the 753 children in indutsry, 511 were followed through to the eighteenth birthday; of the 971 school children, only 152 were available for examination at that age.

The exposition sets forth the conditions under which each mental and physical test was administered. The results of the tests are first grouped for all of the children studied. The range of differences found and percentiles of twenty ranks are shown for each sex at each age.

Next the results of the tests are set out separately for the boys and girls of the school group and of the work group in ten percentile scales. Thus several kinds of comparisons are made at once available; differences between those of each sex in school and those at work and the differences which appear with the passing of time within each age-sex group are established. Furthermore, the relations (1) between the results of the mental and of the physical tests, and (2) between the school grades attained and the tests, are carefully established. In all cases the greatest care seems to have been exercised to make proper allowance for the operation of extraneous factors and to render these data as truly comparable as possible. The magnitude of this task of measurement may be

(*Continued on page* 409)

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As You Sit At Your Desk

By W. H. LEFFINGWELL

Mention of Mr. Leffingwell's work with the Community Council of St. Louis has appeared several times recently in this department of The Survey. He is president of the Leffingwell-Ream Company, management specialists, New York, a member of the Taylor Society, author of Scientific Office Management and of Office Management—Principles and Practice.

FROM what contact I have had with social work executives, I judge that they have a power of analysis distinctly superior to that of the average business man. They approach the social problems of the families they serve, much as an engineer or a scientist approaches his special problems. But the possessor of analytical ability by no means uses that ability on every problem with which he comes in contact. Usually it is confined to one or two special subjects. Let us briefly apply what analytical ability we may possess to our immediate working surroundings, to which we are prone to give only casual attention.

First, let us define our purpose. Why do we have a working room? Why desk and chair? Is the room merely a place to sit in, and the chair to sit upon? Is there anything else we must do besides sit? Even the sitting has an important bearing on our work, but I think it will be admitted that we must, occasionally, do something else. What is that something else?

Let's call it "work." What kind of work? Mainly thinking, writing and interviewing. What are the requirements of a place for such work?

Let us here begin to analyze. Thinking demands concentration. And in the roar of a great city, concentration is often difficult, but to get away to a quiet spot in the country is out of the question. Our thinking must be done amid all kinds of distractions. Getting started is the great difficulty, for no sooner do we settle down to a problem, than a thousand little interfering devils come dancing through eye and brain. We must erect about us artificial protections which will enable us to concentrate.

Some interruptions we will never be able to overcome, but many can be controlled. We can avoid an excessive amount of noise. That from the outside can be largely shut out and inside noise can be minimized. Our brains record every sound within our range of hearing and it is fatiguing even though we may not be conscious of it. We may become inured to a fairly regular, continuous noise from a pneumatic riveter, but if a noise is unusual, irregular or variable, our thoughts run rapidly away from the problem we have set out to investigate. A whispered conversation between two giggling typists, the gurgling of water in the radiator—even these trivialities will distract us.

Another type of interruption within our control is a temporary physical discomfort caused by our surroundings and not by a chronic condition that needs medical attention. We are restless, tired, irritated, nervous; our eyes hurt or we have a pain in the back or shoulders. How much do these things interfere with concentration and efficiency? They are all controllable and it is not wise to attempt deep thinking under such handicaps. We may try to ignore such pains and discomforts, but even if we succeed to some extent, our thought will not be equal to what it would be under circumstances of physical ease. Therefore, if we are tired, let us rest; if we are uncomfortable, let us seek bodily comfort. Such counsel is not a yielding to weakness or indulgence, but sound common sense.

What are the requirements for writing? A place to write, with plenty of space, but not too much; a good writing surface, a comfortable seat, adequate light and ventilation, a proper temperature; such necessary tools as books, paper, pencils, pens, rulers, ink, erasers.

The requirements for interviewing are much the same but we should remember in addition that the visitor is entitled to special consideration as a guest. We must make him comfortable, physically and mentally. It is not courteous to spread out under his eyes papers which he knows he has no right to read, but which are thrust before him in such manner that he cannot avoid seeing the contents. It is not courteous to make him feel that he is an intruder, even though we may inwardly regard him as such. Nor is it wise to let him depart with the impression that we are lacking in efficiency, courtesy or friendliness.

Summing up, then, our purpose is to have a comfortable, efficient working place, whether we call it office, laboratory, studio or aelier. The requirements of such a place are quiet, cheerful surroundings; bodily comfort, which in turn requires good light, air and proper temperature; adequate working facilities.

Let us consider the room. It must not be so small that the occupant feels cramped and crowded nor so large that he feels himself an unimportant part of the surroundings. I would set the minimum space at about 100 square feet. The walls should be painted with light-reflecting (not light-absorbing) colors. Buff is a good, serviceable color, and light green is another, but the particular color is unimportant so long as it does not materially reduce the distribution of light. In this connection it may be noted that even the clearest plate glass absorbs a considerable proportion of the outdoor light and white paper reflects only about 85 per cent of the light, while any color darker than white absorbs a correspondingly greater percentage. Though it is undesirable, and usually impossible, to have everything in the room the same color, an effort should be made to have everything of nearly similar light-reflecting quality.

The ceiling should be a white matte surface for the reflection of artificial light downwards, and as it is above the eye level it can, without any ill effect, be brighter than the walls, for as it reflects light it really increases eye comfort.

The outlook from the windows is important. It is difficult to concentrate if, when gazing outside, the eye meets some distracting sight, such as a stenographer across the way primp-

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HOW TO MANAGE

1. *Define your purpose*

You must know WHAT is to be done before you can know How. This is your master task.

2. *Analyze your problem*

Your master task will then break up into many detail tasks. Consider them all—neglect none.

3. *Seek the facts*

Study every condition governing each task, *find* the undesirable elements to be eliminated, the desirable elements to be retained. Then standardize right conditions.

4. *Devise the one best method*

Aim to conserve ENERGY—TIME—SPACE—MATERIAL. Determine relation of details to Master Task.

5. *Find the person best fitted*

For each task certain personal qualities are essential. In each person certain qualities predominate. Find the person best fitted.

6. *Teach the person best fitted the one best method*

Not by driving, but by thorough patient teaching are understanding and skill developed.

7. *Plan Carefully*

Right planning of arrangement and sequence of work will enable you to accomplish tasks in LOGICAL ORDER—ACCURATELY—QUICKLY—ECONOMICALLY.

8. *Win Co-operation*

Co-operation means working together. It cannot be demanded. It must be won. Accept your share of the responsibility. Respect the rights and aspirations of others.

THIS IS SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

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ing herself, or a vivid maze of advertising signs, or a confined vista of dreary, blank walls. If the view is natural and inspiring, do not obstruct it; if not, shut it out by some means which will not too greatly cut down the amount of daylight.

If one is writing with a pen or pencil, the daylight should come over the left shoulder. For typewriting, the light may come from either side, though if one is copying it should fall on the copy. Direct sunlight should not strike the writing surface or otherwise meet the eye. Venetian blinds with the slats directed upwards, will deflect the sunlight to the ceiling, where it will be diffused, thus giving us full benefit of our magnificent terrestrial lighting system. Blinds or awnings cut out the direct rays but enormously reduce the quantity of light.

The artificial lighting is exceedingly important. The best known type is the totally indirect, with a minimum intensity of ten foot-candles on the working surface. In a recent issue of The Survey, Elwood Street quoted me as saying it should be ten candle-power one foot away. This difference in statement is purely technical, but when you talk with your electrician, say "foot candles" instead of "candle-power," as the latter is an obsolete technical term.

So much for the room. Now let us consider the chairs. There has been no radical change in chair design since the days of Tutankhamen. They are not now and never have been built with any special regard to the human anatomy and a correct working posture. The ordinary chair is built for reclining; the correct working posture is upright and when sitting correctly, the chair back should furnish support to the back. The seat is usually flat, or convex, concave or slightly concave—but whichever it is, it does not fit our physical curves. Its depth is usually much greater than the length of the leg from the buttocks to the underknee, and as a result if we let our lower limbs hang over the edge of the chair we must sit forward on the seat and get no support from the back, whether we are sitting upright or not; and if we sit back in the chair, our feet must stick out straight—a ridiculous dilemma that chair manufacturers seem not to have noticed.

The correct working position requires that the feet be placed squarely on the floor. If one happens to be that unusual individual, the "average" man when the feet are on the floor the elbows will be in the right position for working in comfort at the desk, for the height of desk and chair are "standardized," while people are not, and those who happen to be taller or shorter than this "average" man are simply out of luck. To sit upright for long periods without support for the small of the back, is difficult, and most of us cannot do it. Therefore, for the correct posture there should be support just above the pelvic bones at the back. Considerable body twisting is usually necessary in desk work. A swivel chair saves this effort, but unfortunately most swivel chairs have also a tilting device which is a delusion and a snare. For after some use the slightest movement backward causes the chair to bend back to a dangerous angle and one sits in a "slumped" position.

Check up your chair and note how many of these defects it has. It is possible to find chairs without such defects, but the task will involve much searching.

The desk should next be considered. How large should it be? Manifestly if one cannot reach comfortably to all four corners, it is too large. The top should provide a good writing surface—hard, but not slippery; not a polished surface, for that reflects odd rays of light and causes glare. Glass is the poorest writing surface, wood is fair but not entirely satisfactory, linoleum is best. Linoleum tops for desks can be purchased.

The top middle drawer is usually an abomination—a long, shallow, wide receptacle that is good for little. It is a handy place to put pencils, but every time it is opened, they roll to the back. High-priced desks have compartments for pens, pencils and the like, and such compartments can be purchased as extra features from stationery stores.

What do you keep in the remaining drawers? Have you a system for this? Do you always find things you want in the first drawer in which you look? Or, must you try first one and then the other and thereby not only lose your time but your equanimity? If you have more classified papers than you have drawers in the desk—and one usually has—have you a set of filing folders or a "work organizer" in which to classify them?

Every systematic person has his own working plan; its details are unimportant to others, but the essential requirements is that it works. A great saving in time is accomplished by having well-established working habits, so that when one subconsciously reaches for papers or tools—and finds them—his train of thought is not disturbed. Such habits require a definite place for every tool and accessory. Have you a definite place for your telephone, telephone book, telephone index (of frequently used numbers), calendar, desk pad, stationery, pencils, pens, rulers, clips, rubber bands?

Perhaps you use a book-case. If so, how do you use it? If for occasional reference, it need not be near by, but if reference is frequent it should be very near the desk.

This is a very brief analysis of your immediate working surroundings. You can undoubtedly fill it out. If you will check over each point enumerated and then do something about each defect you discover, you will find an immediate improvement in the quantity and quality of the work you are able to turn out and your ease in doing it.

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Short Cuts in Office Management

By ARTHUR DUNHAM

Thin Letterheads

SOME of our letterheads are printed on a very thin bond paper. This thin letterhead is used for two purposes: 1. To send out certain notices and circular letters to small committees. Six copies may easily be typed at one impression. The printed letterhead immediately identifies the notice and gives it more dignity and importance than if it were typed on ordinary onion skin paper. 2. To make extra carbon copies of letters, when these are to be sent to others than the recipients of the letters, for their information.

Extra Copies

Extra carbon copies of letters can be of great value and can save a good deal of time if one learns to use them skillfully. An executive may keep his president or committee chairmen in touch with many developments through the simple means of sending them extra carbon copies of important outgoing letters.

Another use for the extra carbon is in the following rather common situation: A asks you some question. You know that Agency B will have to furnish the answer to that question as the matter lies in their field. You write a brief note to Agency B, referring the matter to them; at the same time you send to A, the inquirer, an extra copy of your letter to Agency B. This tells A the whole story, without the necessity of writing him a separate letter.

Two suggestions ought to be noted in regard to extra copies of letters: 1. Stamp the extra copy "Copy" so that the recipient will understand at once why he is receiving a letter which bears the name of someone else in the salutation. 2. Make a notation on your file carbon of the names of those to whom you have sent extra copies.

Tickler Carbons

Some offices use a central tickler file. Anyone who wishes to be reminded of some particular matter on a given date fills out a colored tickler blank and drops it into his outgoing basket. The file clerk collects it and files it under the proper date in her chronological tickler file. Each morning she takes out the tickler blanks for that day and distributes them to those whose initials are marked on the ticklers.

When a member of the staff writes a letter, he may direct his stenographer to make a "tickler copy" for some given date. The stenographer makes an extra carbon copy, on paper of the same color as the tickler blank, marks it with the desired date, and sends it to the file clerk for filing in the tickler file under the date when it is wanted. A tickler copy is useful both in following up a letter of yours which has not elicited a reply within a week or two and for reminding yourself of the piece of work which you have promised to undertake by a certain future date.

Summing Up A Conference

When a long and complicated office conference results in a clear agreement as to three or four points, it is often valuable to dictate a memorandum embodying these agreements *before the conference breaks up*. Reducing the agreement to dictated words tends to clarify it, and if there is any remaining difference of opinion as to what *has* been agreed to, the person who disagrees has the opportunity to clear up the question before the conference ends.

Incidentally the dictation provides for a permanent record of the results of the conference; and many a conference is more important than many a letter!

Use Your Card

You know that the executive of the society in the next town would like to see this pamphlet report that you have read. But you're too busy to write him a letter just now. Well, you don't have to write him a letter. Write "From" at the top of your business card, clip it to the report, and mail it. It is easy enough to add "Please return" or even "Please return by 12/4" at the bottom of the card.

A pamphlet which has been loaned to you may likewise often be returned with a simple "Thank you" written upon your card.

You'll Be Interested In—

APPLIED BUDGETING, *by Bruère and Lazarus.* 243 *pp. Price* $6.00. *A. W. Shaw Co., Chicago, or postpaid of The Survey.* The first chapter on the principles and need of budget-control is well worth reading

FIELD SERVICE—DIRECT AND INDIRECT. *Bulletin, Amer. Assn. for Org. Family Social Worker, September* 1926.

WHY DON'T ADVERTISING AGENCIES GO AFTER THE HOSPITALS? *by John A. McNamara. Printer's Ink, November* 11. The hospitals are ready to advertise but they need trained advertising guidance.

SOCIAL EDUCATION FOR THE BUSINESS MAN, *by Paul S. Bliss.* How to organize a community visiting week. A plan of come-and-see visits for men's service clubs. *Better Times, November* 1, 1926.

TRUSTEES HAVE AND ARE PROBLEMS. *Information Exchange, October* 15, 1926. *Department of Institutional Care, Child Welfare League of America,* 130 *East* 22*nd Street, New York.*

SOUNDEX. Speed—Accuracy—Simplicity—Indexing Perfection, *by L. E. Lancaster. Kardex Service, September,* 1926. An article extolling the merits of the "Soundex," née Russell Index, and long known, under this name, to social service exchanges.

COAL SUBSTITUTION. *Social Service, published by the Chicago Council of Social Agencies, October* 1926. Suggests the importance of surprise tests of the quality of coal to make sure that coal other than that specified is not substituted.

In American Stationer and Office Manager for October

ROUND PEGS DON'T FIT SQUARE HOLES, *by Johnson O'Connor.* How the General Electric Company prevents misfits through practical ability tests.

DOES THE "STENO" EARN HER SALARY? J. H. MacDonald discusses certain applications of scientific management to office work. As to the question in the title, the average stenographer in the average social agency probably earns at least her salary!

GREATER EFFICIENCY THROUGH JOB ANALYSIS, *by Harold E. Bergen.* Includes a suggestive "job analysis work sheet."

In System for November

WE THREW 67 PER CENT OF OUR PROSPECTS OVERBOARD AND OUR SALES INCREASED 15 PER CENT, *by H. L. Donahower.* Indicates the desirability of checking your mailing lists carefully for making sure that all the names on it are worth the expenditure in time, effort, and money.

HOW MUCH OF MY TIME SHOULD MY BUSINESS TAKE? *by Claude H. Foster.* An important lesson for the executive who inclines to have too many outside interests.

WHAT I WOULD DO. Has numerous practical suggestions. For example: "If I were an advertising manager I would put my name on my own mailing list so that I would receive a copy of every mailing piece that was sent out in just the way that it was received by others on the list."

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Over My Desk

A Monthly Talk with Executives

By ELWOOD STREET

Director, Community Council of St. Louis

Mileage Allowance for Cars

MANY social agencies are struggling with the problem of what allowance to make members of their staff who use their own automobiles in the service of the organization.

A standard quite generally adopted is the allowance of seven cents a mile for each mile in which the car is driven for the organization's activities. This estimate is based upon the experience of large business corporations which use large number of cars. It is found to work out quite uniformly for Fords, Dodges, and Hupmobiles, and includes all costs—gasoline, oil, tires, repairs, insurance, depreciation. Some organizations make larger allowances, one at least paying eight and one-half cents a mile and others running up to as much as ten cents. Quite often a flat rate of twenty-five dollars a month is allowed regardless of the number of miles run.

A very interesting form for keeping track of automobile mileage and expenses has been prepared by the Grand Rapids Welfare Union. Charles C. Stillman, executive secretary, 711 Shepherd Building, Grand Rapids, would doubtless be glad to send a copy of it to anyone interested.

Who Should Pay Conference Expenses?

What expenses of a social worker in attendance at a conference should be paid by the agency which employs him?

Some share the expense half and half.

The policy which has worked out satisfactorily in at least one agency is, that the agency pay railroad fare to and from the conference and $3 a day, which presumably covers a reasonable room rent while the worker is at the conference.

The worker then can live just as expensively or economically as he desires and the organization does not pay for fancy tastes at breakfast or dinner or for luxurious desires in the way of sleeping accommodations.

This proposal seems fair, furthermore, because for a good many social workers their ordinary home living expenses stop when they go to conferences.

Moreover, to the worker himself there is a definite professional advantage from the point of view of acquaintanceship and advancement in his profession by attending a national or state conference of social work or a conference in a specialized field of activity. There is no reason at all why the worker who profits by this experience should not pay a small part of the cost.

Staff Morale

"Know the whole job yourself" is the pertinent suggestion of Anna G. Williams, director of the Social Service Bureau, Denver, Colorado. "See that every member of the staff knows her job and at least one other person's job. Encourage staff members to make suggestions for the good of the cause. Remember the Golden Rule in dealing with the staff, including all employes."

Cutting Down Printing Costs

The Community Fund of St. Louis is saving 50 per cent of the cost of its workers' report envelopes this year by having them mimeographed in its own office instead of printed outside. Raymond, the versatile young man in charge of the addressograph department, has been taking night courses in architectural draftsmanship and applies this skill very successfully to drawing in the headings and rulings required while the instructions are typed in the usual way. A surprising amount of money can be saved by the use of the mimeograph in the preparation of all sorts of forms for internal use.

How Do You Look?

The Little Schoolmaster, whose column in the back of Printer's Ink Weekly is well worth the reading by anyone interested in publicity and advertising, records that in the business office of the Columbus Dispatch is a large mirror so placed that it will be seen by every salesman when he starts out in the morning. Above this mirror is a sign which reads:

> Your appearance will have either a favorable or an unfavorable reaction upon every prospect you meet today. Look yourself over.

The same plan might be used by a social agency whose caseworkers or other representatives leave the office every day to go about the city as walking advertisements of their organizations. But a social agency would, of course, have as much regard for the English of its sign as for the appearance of its representatives.

A Community Calendar

"Our Community Chest office acts as a clearing-house on important dates, not only for social service organizations but for all organizations in town," writes Homer E. Wickenden, executive secretary of the Mt. Vernon (N. Y.) Community Chest. "Every six months we issue a calendar with the proposed future events listed. We have been able to avoid a number of conflicts in dates by this means, and also have kept people informed when our campaign occurs so that they will plan nothing for that period. One of the best features of this is that when an organization is discussing its plans for a future occasion it injects into it a mention of the Community Chest and the service it renders in this field. It seems to create considerable good will for the Community Chest because it demonstrates a service to the community, outside of a financial interest."

Administrative Advice

FIVE nationally known authorities have agreed to place at your service, without charge, the benefits of their training and experience in welfare administration. They will gladly try to answer whatever problem in administration now confronts you; if they cannot give complete answers themselves, they will try to refer you to some one who can.

Maybe you are about to form a social workers' club, or a council of social agencies, and wish to know where you can obtain a model constitution.

Maybe you want to know what financial records a social agency should keep, and whether the expense of an audit is necessary.

Whatever your problem may be, if you will be specific in describing it and mail it to The Secretary, Survey's Committee on Administration, the committee will try to help you find the answer.

The Survey's Committee on Administration

ELWOOD STREET, St. Louis, *Chairman.*
ROBERT W. KELSO, Boston.
FRANCIS H. McLEAN, New York.
LEROY A. RAMSDELL, New York.
ARTHUR DUNHAM, Philadelphia.
JOHN D. KENDERDINE, New York, *Secretary.*

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GOSSIP: of People and Things

P.C.A. Performs Another Service

MANY large cities have published directories of social agencies, but it remained for the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania to compile a directory giving all the social resources of a region Where to Turn—an intelligently planned and well printed pamphlet of 44 pages and cover—is a "brief outline of the social resources prepared for the use of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the Province of Washington." This includes, roughly, Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia and West Virginia

It contains three divisions: (1) Social Work—a brief description of the major types of welfare service as they are found today in the United States. (2) A directory of certain selected national state and local welfare organizations located in or giving service to communities within the Province of Washington. In making the selection, family welfare societies, community chests, councils of social agencies, social service exchanges, social service directories for local communities and non-sectarian schools of social work have been included—in cities of 25,000 and over. (3) A directory of national Episcopal church welfare organizations and diocesan welfare agencies and institutions within the Province of Washington.

Where to Turn is a most thoughtful piece of educational social work. Not only will it bring church folk into closer touch with recognized social agencies, national and local, but it will acquaint professional social workers with the welfare work being done by a large Protestant denomination.

Its brief and lucid description of various types of social work makes it a serviceable pamphlet for social workers the country over. For social workers—Episcopalian and otherwise—in the states covered it is invaluable. Where to Turn may be purchased at 25 cents a copy from the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, 311 South Juniper Street, Philadelphia.

New York, Missouri and Kentucky

AT its twenty-eighth annual meeting in Buffalo, November 16-19, the New York Conference of Charities and Corrections voted to change its name to New York Conference on Social Work. The 1927 meeting will be held in Troy. William H. Gratwick, of Buffalo, was elected president; Luella R. North of Plattsburgh, Emanuel Celler of Brooklyn, and Frederick A. Moran, secretary of the State Probation Commission, vice-presidents. Richard W. Wallace, of the State Board of Charities, was re-elected secretary.

At the Missouri Conference of Social Work, Professor E. L. Morgan, University of Missouri, was elected president and Walter W. Whitson, of Kansas City, secretary. John A. Lapp, president of the National Conference of Social Work, was a featured speaker. Efforts are being made to secure funds to employ a full time secretary. The 1927 meeting will be in Boonville, October 10-12.

The Louisville Conference of Social Work voted recently to make the conference a sounding board for outstanding social problems. The conference is therefore planning to bring to Louisville such people as Joseph K. Hart of The Survey staff; Mary Bogue, director of the Mothers' Assistance Fund of Pennsylvania; John Herring of the Federal Council of Churches; Bruno Lasker, of The Inquiry; Gertrude Vaile, former president of the National Conference; Walter Pettit, of the New York School of Social Work. The officers are: president, Paul L. Benjamin; vice-presidents, Elizabeth Speed, Edith A. Lovell; secretary, Annabel Kahn; treasurer, Edith Epler.

John R. Brown—In Memoriam

MR. BROWN was born in Brooklyn and educated at Columbia University and at the University of Edinburgh. He took his theological training at the University of Rochester where he came strongly under the influence of the late Henry Drummond. He entered the Baptist ministry and held pastorates at Kansas City, Providence, R. I., and Bridgeport, Conn. While at Bridgeport he became interested in social work and was president of the Bridgeport Charity Organization Society and chairman, during the war, of a local committee to suppress vice conditions in the city. He was later given the chair of Christian Ethics at the University of Rochester where he taught for six years.

In 1923 he accepted the general secretaryship of the United Charities of St. Paul and has since made himself an important figure in the social work of the northwest. His interests have not been confined to St. Paul, however. He has travelled widely and made friends for social work wherever he went. After going to Minnesota he became a student of Indian affairs and was influential in securing legislation for the benefit of the Ojibway tribe of his state. For two years he acted as secretary of the State Committee on Social Legislation and has been active in the State Conference of Social Work.

Mr. Brown had peculiar powers of making and maintaining a wide circle of acquaintances and friends for himself and the movement which he represented. He was much in demand as a public speaker and his associates in St. Paul and throughout the state feel that social work in this part of the country has sustained an irreparable loss.

He is survived by his wife, who was Gertrude Rowley, of Kansas City, and two sons, Kenneth and Hugh, the elder a student at Carleton College and the younger still in high school.

Mr. Brown's sudden death, which was the result of heart trouble, occurred while he was in attendance at the Mid-West Conference of General Secretaries at St. Louis, October 29.

Recreation Workers in Training

THE Recreation School started this year by the Playground and Recreation Association of America is well under way with a registration of forty pupils. The idea of the school grew out of the successful short term summer schools which had been held at Bear Mountain.

The school this year is a full time enterprise, the students giving four hours a day to school work and twelve hours a week to field work. Besides this time given to study, the forty students who are candidates for executive positions in recreation work, are holding seventy part time positions in settlement houses, schools and kindred organizations, to help pay for their training.

For Volunteers

VOLUNTEER VALUES is the title of a course of eight lectures being given at the Russell Sage Foundation, New York, on Monday mornings by the Association of Volunteers in Social Service, of which Mrs. Danforth Geer is president. The history and present field of social work, family welfare, medical social work, the church, the neighborhood, are some of the titles.

Honors

PRESIDENT MASARYK, of the Czecho-Slovak Republic has conferred the Order of the White Lion upon Mary E. McDowell, commissioner of public welfare, Chicago, and Julia C. Lathrop. This was presented to them in appreciation of social service which they have rendered to the Republic.

Penn Points with Pride

WITH the advent of a full time executive secretary, Esther R. Entriken, the Graduate Nurses' Association of Pennsylvania publishes a monthly magazine for its members. Penn Points is a 32-page magazine containing national and local nursing news and reports from the component nursing organizations.

Miscellaneous

THE family welfare organizations of Kentucky have recently organized into the Kentucky Inter-City Conference of Family Societies. Paul L. Benjamin, general secretary of the Louisville Family Service Organization, has been elected chairman and Margaret Woll, one of the supervisors of the Family Service Organization, secretary.

THE November issue of the Journal of Social Hygiene was a memorial to Dr. Charles W. Eliot, first president of the American Social Hygiene Association.

SPRINGFIELD, MASS., and Trenton, N. J., have organized Travelers' Aid Societies.

GEORGE E. WORTHINGTON, formerly special consultant to the U. S. Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board and a member of the staff of the American Social Hygiene Association, has been appointed

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general secretary, Committee of Fourteen, New York City, succeeding Frederick Whitin.

C. M. BOOKMAN directed the first community chest campaign of Providence, R. I., this fall, with a goal of $442,000.

GEORGE A. BELLAMY, head resident of Hiram House,, Cleveland, was the honor guest at a dinner in Cleveland commemorating his thirty years of social work in that city

LOUIS BROWNLOW, formerly city manager of Petersburg,, Va., and Knoxville, Tenn., is syndicating to the press of the country through Current News Features, of Washington, D. C., a service of timely letters on current municipal problems.

ELTON MAYO, industrial psychologist, formerly with the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania, has been appointed associate professor of industrial research at the Harvard School of Graduate Administration.

FREDERICK SOULE was elected president and Lillie M. Peck executive secretary at the annual meeting of the Boston Social Union (the Boston Council Department of Settlements).

ONE OF THE SURYEY'S field staff writes in: "I think I had better subscribe to The Survey," said a nurse walking up to my table at the N. Y. State Nurses meeting. "People are always asking me if I've seen this or that article in The Survey. I've got to the point where I'm ashamed to say 'No.' Here's my subscription."

PAUL L. BENJAMIN, general secretary Family Service Organization of Louisville, Arthur H. Taylor, secretary of the Children's Bureau of Louisville, and Dr. Frank J. O'Brien, director of the Psychological Clinic, are teaching at the University of Louisville. The university has taken over the Louisville School of Social Work of which Mary Brisby was director, and has retained Miss Brisby on the faculty.

THE SURVEYS OF 1926 is the flattering title of the New York City Social Workers' annual gambol. "Feebleminded Fanny's whole family will be there" the announcement promises, at the Heckscher Theater, 1 E. 104th St., N.Y.C., December 19 at 8:30 P.M.

A Stray Thought of a Social Worker

Sheer sympathy will solve so much,
And milk of human kindness feed
So many! Gentleness can touch
The springs that quench the deepest need.

Are we inclined to look askance
At homely cures for distress,
Because they give so little chance
To show the world our cleverness?

JOHN F. HALL
Director, Norfolk (Va.) Community Fund.

Elections and Appointments

MRS. DAVID C. ADIE as volunteer director of the speakers' bureau recently organized by the Buffalo Council of Social Agencies.

ELIZABETH BADGER, Margaret Gray, and Margaret Padlock to the staff Women's Protective Association, Cleveland.

LAURIS BALDWIN as field captain St. Louis Girl Scouts, succeeding Mary Clark, resigned.

CAROL BATES, executive secretary Missouri Welfare League, as president St. Louis Social Workers' Association.

RACHEL BEATTY as medical social worker, Presbyterian Hospital, Pittsburgh, succeeding Josephine Whitney, now with A. R. C. Disaster Relief in Florida.

AGNES E. BENEDICT to the staff of the Public Education Association.

JEAN BESLEY in charge of health education, Oregon Tuberculosis Assocnation.

HARRIET BRENENSTALL and Margaret McNair as field nurses, department of child hygiene, Nebraska State Dept. of Public Welfare.

DORIS CANGNEY, Elsie Parker, Doris Cushman, Marjory Stocks, Evelyn Schellack and Alma Dester to the staff of Omaha Associated Charities.

MRS. FAYE CATLIN, formerly transient service worker, Tacoma A. R. C., as executive secretary, Long Beach (Cal.) Chapter, A. R. C.

DANIEL CHASE, formerly chief of Physical Education Bureau, N. Y. State Dept. of Education, as executive secretary, Sportsman's Brotherhood, New York City.

GUY CLARK as executive secretary, Cleveland Hospital Council.

MYRA F. CLONDMAN, formerly child welfare supervisor, New Haven Visiting Nurse Association, to the staff of the Athens (Ga.) Child Health Demonstration.

REGINA COHN to staff of clinic at Colorado Psychopathic Hospital.

MRS. LILA CRONIN to the staff Family Welfare Society, Savannah, Ga.

ANNE CULLIGAN as psychiatric social worker, Board of Education, Syracuse, N. Y.

EVA DALE to the staff of the Los Angeles confidential exchange.

WILLIAM DINGS as assistant director Publicity Department, St. Louis Community Funds.

AGNES S. DONALDSON, formerly case supervisor Associated Charities, Colorado Springs, as associate of Miriam Van Waters, Ph.D., referee Los Angeles Juvenile Court.

EDNA A. DUERR as executive secretary Floyd County Tuberculosis Association, New Albany, Indiana.

JAMES DUNN as president Toledo Social Workers' Club.

MINNIE EDELSCHICK as superintendent United Jewish Charities, Hartford, Conn.

FRANK W. EVANS, executive secretary Naval Y.W.C.A., Norfolk, Va., as president Norfolk Chapter A. R. C.

MARIE E. FALLDINE to the staff Oregon Tuberculosis Association.

RUTH FITZ SIMONS as assistant secretary, Social Welfare League, Seattle.

BELLE R. FRANCIS as assistant director St. Louis Visiting Nurse Association.

MRS. MURIEL HUDNUT FRIZZEL as educational secretary, Florence Crittenden League of Boston.

MRS. LOUISE GEORGE as editorial assistant, Amer. Social Hygiene Association.

SAMUEL GERSON as directory Jewish Welfare Federation and executive secretary, Jewish Community Center, Omaha, Neb.

STELLA GOOSTRAY, formerly head of the Educational Department, Phila. General Hospital, as superintendent of nurses, Childrens' Hospital, Boston.

A. A. HAINSWORTH, formerly general secretary Norfolk United Charities, as probation officer, Norfolk Juvenile Court.

JEANNETTE HALVERSON as executive secretary Juvenile Protective Association, Milwaukee.

RUTH HAMMERSTEIN as director tuberculosis divison, Long Beach (Cal.) Welfare Department.

JULIA W. HOPKINS as general secretary, Family Welfare Society, Savannah, Ga.

URBAN S. HUGHES as executive director Community Y. M. C. A., Erie, Pa.

MOLLY KIMBALL as family case worker, Utica Associated Charities.

ORLO F. KING as extension secretary, Chicago City Club.

MARJORY LACEY-BAKER as secretary publicity and finance, Henry Street Settlement, New York.

ROBERT E. LEWIS as director community chest campaign Council Bluffs, Iowa.

F. M. McBROOM, formerly general secretary Savannah Family Welfare Society, as executive director Savannah Community Chest.

ALAN McEWEN as publicity director San Francisco Community Chest.

MARGARET McGREEVY, formerly Nebraska nursing representative A. R. C. to the staff of the Tri-City Hygiene Institute, LaSalle, Ill.

MARIA F. MARTIN as executive secretary Church Mission of Help, Diocese of Central New York, Utica, N. Y.

ALICE PECK as field secretary Missouri Welfare League.

ROSAMOND PRAEGER as supervisor Pre-School Division, Bureau of Nurses, Dept. of Health, Syracuse.

ANNA B. PRATT as official representative Amer. Assn. of Social Workers at the Fifth Pan American Child Congress, Havana, February 1927.

DR. GEORGE K. PRATT as consultant in mental hygiene to the University of Vermont.

JOHN RANSOM as superintendent Toledo Hospital.

ELEANOR RIED as secretary Chatham Savannah Tuberculosis Association, succeeding Mrs. Marjorie McGehee resigned.

BERTHA E. ROBIN as superintendent Pittsburgh Bureau for Jewish Children, succeeding Mrs. Luba Keats, resigned.

EUNICE ROBINSON as executive secretary Denver Bureau of Charities, and Sallie Levingston as assistant.

FRANK M. ROBINSON as publicity director, Boy Scouts of America.

KATE W. RODGERS to the staff Children's Home Society of California.

STELLA ROSENBAUM as executive secretary North Toledo Community House, Toledo, O.

DR. HENRY C. SCHUMACKER to Child Guidance Clinic, Cleveland.

ANNE SCHWENSEN as executive secretary Tacoma Associated Charities.

MRS. MARGARET E. SHOOK as executive secretary Fort Wayne (Ind.) Tuberculosis League.

W. ROBERT SMALLS as industrial secretary, Cleveland Negro Welfare Association.

BENT TAYLOR, formerly executive director, Durham (N. C.) Community Chest and for two years director of publicity, Richmond Community Fund, to the staff of the American Association for Community Organization.

JEANETTE TOWNSEND as extension secretary Chicago Infant Welfare Society.

HAROLD VANN as chief probation officer King County Juvenile Court, Seattle.

KATHLEEN WEHRBEIN as executive secretary, New York Committee on Vaginitis.

GEORGE D. WHEELER as boys' work secretary, Erie Y. M. C. A.

LLOYD WILCOX, formerly on the staff of the National Tuberculosis Association, to the staff Oregon Tuberculosis Association.

DR. C. A. S. Williams as president, Mrs. H. G. Chamberlain as vice-president and Floyd Pfaff as secretary-treasurer of the Washington County Public Health Council, Marietta, O.

J. KENNETH WINTERS as executive director Erie County Anti-Tuberculosis Society, Erie, Pa.

HAZEL BELL WITHEROW as metropolitan executive, Girl Reserve Dept., Pittsburgh, Y. W. C. A.

Resignations and Leaves

JOSEPHINE BARTHOLOMEW from staff Cleveland Associated Charities to be married.

EDITH FOSTER as executive secretary Juvenile Protective Association, Milwaukee, in order to give more time as director, Milwaukee School of Social Work which now has an enrollment of twenty-five regular and four special students.

MARIAN HATHAWAY, placement officer, Denver schools, on year's leave of absence. Esther Harrison will take her place.

FLORENCE HUTSINPILLAR, executive secretary, Denver Bureau of Charities, and Leila Kinney, assistant, on a year's leave of absence.

ANNABEL NEWBILL from Savannah Family Welfare Society to join A. R. C. at Miami, Florida.

KATHERINE ROWE as county secretary, Bradford County Children's Aid Society, Tonowanda, Pa., to join A. R. C. Disaster Relief in Florida.

MARION SOUTHARD (Mrs. P. J. Weiss) as chief probation officer, King County Juvenile Court, Seattle.

T. J. THORNE as executive secretary Savannah Community Chest.

JAMES A. TOBEY from the Institute for Government Research, Washington, D. C., to enter business.

CARRIE YOUNKER as executive secretary, Council of Jewish Women, Norfolk, Va.

WILLIAM F. ZUERNER as chief probation officer, Milwaukee Juvenile Court, after twenty-one years service.

Deaths

DORA PETTIT, public health nurse for the Bureau of Community Service, Portsmouth, Ohio.

CHARLES C. WARE, superintendent Toledo Hospital.

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All Readers of The Survey Are Invited to Take Part in Three Awards of the Harmon Foundation, Through Survey Associates, Closing at Noon of December 31, 1926

AWARD I

$1000 and Medal

TO the individual who, in the opinion of the judges, has been responsible, during the calendar year 1926, for the creation, introduction, or development of a distinctive contribution to the social, civic or industrial welfare.

¶ This achievement will not be measured by magnitude or immediate results, but rather by the potentiality of the project as a leavening influence in our American life.

¶ The jury for this award, appointed by Survey Associates, is as follows: JULIAN W. MACK, chairman, judge, U. S. Circuit Court, New York; MISS JANE ADDAMS, head worker, Hull House, Chicago; WILL W. ALEXANDER, director, Commission on Inter-Racial Cooperation, Atlanta; MRS. MARY S. GIBSON, from 1913 to 1923 educational commissioner, California State Housing and Immigration Commission, Los Angeles; REV. JOHN A. RYAN, director, National Catholic Welfare Council, Washington, D. C.

¶ The award is not competitive in a literal sense, and, while nominations are invited, exclusively by mail, the judges will not be restricted to a choice from such nominations. Honorable mention with medal will be awarded to others who in the opinion of the judges merit such recognition.

¶ *Nominations must be received not later than noon of December 31, 1926. Preferably they should be in the form of a letter describing the achievement and giving the names and addresses of three references who can be written to if desired. Address Jury Harmon-Survey Award I, care of Survey Associates, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N.Y.*

AWARD II

$500

TO the author of the article, appearing in 1926 in any American periodical or newspaper which, in the opinion of the judges, makes the most distinctive contribution of the year to social or industrial welfare in the United States.

¶ The award will be based, broadly speaking, on the success of the writer in dramatizing or interpreting his subject or project so as to reach and influence the lay public, as well as the freshness, authenticity, and social import of the material itself.

¶ The jury for this award, appointed by the Harmon Foundation, is as follows: SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY, chairman, professor social legislation, Columbia University; WILLIAM ALLEN WHITE, editor, Emporia Gazette; JOHN A FITCH, member of faculty, New York School of Social Work; VERNON KELLOGG, chairman, Division of Educational Relations, National Research Council, Washington, D. C.; CHESTER H. ROWELL, former editor and publisher, Fresno Republican.

¶ *To be considered for the award, articles must be submitted by mail in their printed form by the author, editor, or others interested, and reach Jury, Harmon-Survey Award II, care of Harmon Foundation, 140 Nassau Street, New York, N.Y. prior to noon, December 31, 1926.*

Prize Winners in the Award on Recreation for Grown-Ups Are Given on the Inside Front Cover of this Issue.

AWARD III

$250—$100—$50

TO the best unpublished manuscripts dealing with some adventure, invention or accomplishment in the field of public education.

¶ The story may be of a public school, city or country, elementary, high school or university; of a public school teacher or administrator or student; of a city, county or state scheme of public education.

¶ The winning story will be published in The Survey and in collaborating periodicals.

¶ The jury for this award, appointed by Survey Associates, is as follows: JOHN H. FINLEY, editor, New York Times; GLENN FRANK, president of the University of Wisconsin; JOSEPH K. HART, associate editor of The Survey; HENRY R. LINVILLE, president of the Teachers' Union, New York; LUCY SPRAGUE MITCHELL, chairman of the Bureau of Educational Experiments, New York; NATHANIEL M. SALLEY, dean of the School of Education, Florida State College for Women; WILL C. WOOD, state superintendent of Public Instruction, California; MARY E. WOOLLEY, president of Mount Holyoke College; BEULAH AMIDON, secretary to the jury, education editor of The Survey.

Manuscripts must not be less than 1,000n or more than 2,500 words in length, typewritten, double-spaced, on one side of the paper. Delivery must be made not later than noon of December 31, 1926. Address Jury, Harmon-Survey Award III, care of The Survey, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y. Identification must be by means of a pen-name signed to the manuscript, with an accompanying plain, sealed envelope having on the outside the pen-name; inside the real name and address of the author. Manuscripts are sent at the owner's risk.

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NATIONAL COMMUNITY CENTER ASSOCIATION: St. Louis, Mo. Dec. 28-31. Secretary, L. E. Bowman, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY: St. Louis, Mo. Dec. 28-31. Write Dr. E. W. Burgess, c/o University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION: St. Louis, Mo. Dec. 28-31. Write Prof. R. C. McCrea, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION: St. Louis, Mo. Dec. 28-31. Write Dr. F. A. Ogg, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisc.

AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION: St. Louis, Mo. Dec. 28-31. Secretary, Dr. W. I. King, 474 West 24th St., New York, N. Y.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS: Philadelphia, Pa. January 4-7, 1927. Secretary, Florence E. Quinlan, 156 5th Ave., New York, N. Y.

PUBLIC WELFARE INSTITUTE: Winston-Salem, N. C. Jan. 12-14, 1927. Director, Lawrence A. Oxley, State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, Raleigh, N. C.

PENNSYLVANIA TUBERCULOSIS SOCIETY: Scranton. Jan. 25-26, 1927. Executive Secretary, Arthur M. Dewees, 311 S. Juniper St., Philadelphia, Pa.

BIG BROTHER AND BIG SISTER FEDERATION: Cleveland, Ohio. Jan. 25-27, 1927. Executive Secretary, Rowland C. Sheldon, 511 5th Ave., New York, N. Y.

MARYLAND STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Baltimore. Jan. 14-16, 1927. Secretary, Sarah F. Martin, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

CONNECTICUT NURSES ASSOCIATION: Bridgeport. Jan. 1927. Secretary, Amber L. Forbush, 46 Durham Ave., Middletown.

Berkeley Still Leads

Following is the relative standing of cities of the United States as to percentage of subscriptions—Survey and Survey Graphic. Cities shown are those listed in 1920 Federal Census as having a population of 50,000 or more. Percentages at the right show only relative standing, not the number of subscriptions. The first column at the left shows present rank of each city, followed by rank eleven months ago.

Berkeley, Cal., still heads the list, a long jump ahead of Cambridge, Mass., which holds second place. Rockford, Ill. advanced 31 points to third place. The biggest advance was made by Somerville, Mass., a gain of 86 points, while Tampa, Fla., Atlantic City, N. J., Gary, Ind., and Norfolk, Va., all moved ahead more than 50 places.

1—1 Berkeley, Calif...1.589
2—3 Cambridge, Mass.. .764
3—34 Rockford, Ill.... .742
4—6 Los Angeles, Calif. .650
5—16 Cincinnati, Ohio. .611
6—4 Lincoln, Nebr.... .582
7—39 Long Beach, Calif. ..... .571
8—9 Pittsburgh, Pa... .570
9—10 New Haven, Conn. ..... .534
10—7 Springfield, Ill.. .525
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138—135 Jersey City, N. J. ..... .070

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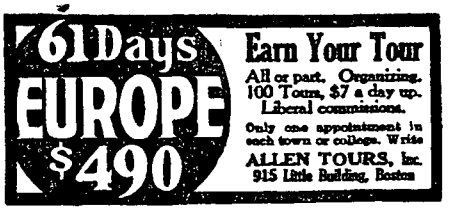
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House for the Goose, House for the Gander

(*Continued from page* 373)

but 30,000 square feet of excavation and material. The remaining land will be used for gardens, with a Japanese rockery, for courts, and for a children's playground. Mr. Thomas cites this building in support of his statement that a wage-earners' apartment occupying more than 50 per cent of the ground area is uneconomic. He says:

> If more than a certain proportion of the land is built upon, one of two situations arises. Either apartments must be made larger or more apartments must be placed on a floor. If eight- or nine-room apartments are built, or five and six rooms are so large as to occupy the space that eight moderate-sized rooms would take, we are obviously outside the sphere of workingmen's homes. No wage-earner could possibly afford the luxury of a living room 20x30 and bedrooms 15 feet square. If you take the other alternative and put a few more apartments on each floor, you must immediately make provision for more stairs and hallways and other non-income-producing space. The result is that the additional non-rentable area is so great that the income derived from the additional rooms is not sufficient to compensate for the additional cost of construction or to meet the additional carrying charges. So the rents must be increased throughout the house. In other words, a smaller investment produces a larger return with less cost to the tenants—paradoxical, but a fact.

Building restrictions created an obstacle here as well as in Bayonne, one difficulty over the interpretation of a clause written to apply not to block-square operations but to buildings erected on 25-foot lots having added $25,000 to the cost of the project in lawyers' fees and carrying charges due to the delay in beginning work.

The plans for the Mott Avenue houses include some new features, an indoor gymnasium for the children, a nursing room where mothers can care for babies and a community hall. The rooms are larger than in any of the houses here described, and the land is relatively costly. The apartments will be sold, not rented, at a carrying and maintenance charge of less than $15 a room a month. The part of this charge that is comparable to rent, Mr. Thomas estimates, will not exceed $11 a room a month and probably will be nearer $10.

The latest and in some ways the most interesting of these projects, since it deals with a situation almost entirely neglected thus far, is a green garden tenement for Negroes now being constructed on a block bounded by Seventh and Eighth Avenues, 149th and 150th Streets, in Harlem. It has recently been announced that Mr. Rockefeller has bought five additional blocks along Seventh Avenue in this same region, a district that has been characterized hitherto by the gross overcrowding that was described in The Survey's Harlem Number. Mr. Rockefeller's plans for this additional property have not been made, but it is obvious that the use of six blocks for modern and well-planned dwellings may, by example, materially alter the Negroes' situation.

In addition to these several demonstrations of reduced costs and vastly improved plans for low-rent apartments, Mr. Thomas has preached slum clearance through the newspapers. It is clear that all these projects leave untouched a considerable number of rent-payers whose incomes are still too low to take advantage of rooms, however attractive, at ten dollars a month and upwards, and that building even a block at a time is against the background of miles and miles of ill-planned, unsanitary, disgraceful old-law tenements—a slow corrective to New York's housing evils. But it is of great service in dealing with one of the city's most baffling problems to have this record of economies and social advantages brought about through the combination of non-speculative capital, large-scale operation, and ingenuity in plan—the application to families of small income of the same principles of good housing that are increasingly available for families of means.

Governor Alfred E. Smith

ON WATER POWER
AND ITS SOCIAL USES

In Survey Graphic *for* January

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COMMUNICATIONS

The Passaic Health Report

TO THE EDITOR: In answer to your letter of October 14th enclosing Dr. Adelaide Ross Smith's review on our study of health hazards in the textile industry, we wish to acknowledge the opportunity you have extended to give space to a review of the important findings disclosed by our investigation. Our study, which was based on medical examinations of 404 Passaic textile workers, represents the first of its kind made in this country.

Since you informed me over the telephone on Monday that Dr. Smith's review had already gone to press at the time it was sent to us, and that no changes would be made, there would really be no point in sending you several minor suggestions regarding the main substance of the paper. We regret however to have to point out that there is one paragraph to which we take exception. In our opinion the last paragraph is outside the limits of the "impartial" review which The Survey has laid down for its policy and because of its implications we believe it necessary to present our position on the matter.

Admittedly recognizing the "arresting facts" brought out by the Workers' Health Bureau investigation and that the Bureau has made a "sound medical study," Dr. Smith departs from the field of objective criticism to say that "It is inevitably a mistake to try to combine propaganda for unionization with a scientific report," that "The Bureau will have more influence in helping to improve industrial health conditions by maintaining a more composed and scientific attitude toward its own work," that "The Bureau has distinctly cheapened a sound medical study by an emotional presentation of the facts . . . . . tends to become hysterical trying to emphasize them."

Whether "it is inevitably a mistake to combine propaganda for unionization with a scientific report," is a more or less controversial matter. Here Dr. Smith falls into the error of introducing a purely subjective viewpoint. Since The Survey is primarily concerned with a "dispassionate summary" of the facts brought out by the Workers' Health Bureau study and has rejected *our* review of the report on the ground that it is "a moving plea for the strikers' cause with the Workers' Health Bureau study as a factual basis," it appears to us that the position stated by Dr. Smith is inconsistent with your policy. Dr. Smith can find no criticism against the accuracy and soundness of the study, and in our judgment her conclusions are neither justified nor correct.

The Workers' Health Bureau as you know is organized to serve labor. Our fundamental purpose is to utilize the technique of science in gathering accurate data to determine the nature and extent of occupational hazards and to give this information to the trade unions for the purpose of ridding industry of those hazards which now menace the health and life of workers.

Scientific facts, we are told, should speak for themselves. Yes, but we have seen such facts brought out in other investigations, ignored, shelved, or utilized in the interests of the employers against the workers.

The evidence of tuberculosis disclosed by medical examinations of the 404 Passaic textile workers aside from other conditions revealed, presents a clear-cut picture of the relation between dangerous working conditions and the present alarming rate of disease found among textile workers. Six out of every 100 workers examined, were found to have tuberculosis. A study of death records in 1919 [Preventable Death in Cotton Manufacturing Industry—U. S. Department of Labor Statistics, Bulletin No. 251] made in another textile center, Massachusetts, revealed the fact that the death-rate from tuberculosis alone among married women card-room workers was found to be 323 per cent greater than among married women who do not work in textile mills. This study also showed the deaths from tuberculosis among textile workers between 15 and 44 years of age to be 100 per cent greater than for all other persons in the same age group in the general population.

Dr. Alice Hamilton, a leading authority on industrial hygiene, after interpreting our medical findings, concludes that the unhealthful conditions described and the excessive rate of disease found among the workers exposed are almost entirely preventable. In the face of these facts, we cannot take a detached, and "impartial" attitude. The Workers' Health Bureau points out the conclusions to be drawn and pins the responsibilities squarely on the textile industry.

After nine months of conflict and when some of the leading liberal journals of the country have definitely come out on the side of the Passaic textile strikers in their heroic struggle for the right to union organization, the policy of "sitting on the fence" as an "impartial" observer does not bring an iota of help to the workers involved or to the solution of the grave problems of protecting health and life in the textile industry, notorious for its record as an exploiter of child and woman labor.

The Workers' Health Bureau study of the Passaic textile strikers stands on its scientific merits. Our interpretation of scientific data is consistently in the interests of the workers.

We trust you will give this letter space in the columns of The Survey.

HARRIET SILVERMAN
Director Workers' Health Bureau
New York City

Miss Silverman must have misunderstood our answer to her urgent telephone message. It was not that the issue had gone to press and we could make no changes in Dr. Smith's review, but that it was about to go to press and no changes would be made unless there were possible errors of fact. We felt that Survey readers and the Workers' Health Bureau would both be better served in a review by a competent outsider than by the statement offered us over Miss Silverman's signature. That such a competent reviewer should feel free to criticise the tone or any other aspect of the report she was reviewing is a matter of course. No reader of Dr. Smith's review in The Survey of October 15 could fail to find it "dispassionate" and appreciative.—The Editors.

Said of the Survey

TO THE EDITOR: I do appreciate The Survey. If I had to choose one journal out of the hundreds (in at least ten languages) which come over my desk, I should pick it out, not because it teaches me more than the others but because it makes me think. This sounds like a publisher's puff but it comes from the heart.

NORAH HILL
Editorial Staff, World's Health
Paris

TO THE EDITOR: Sincere congratulations to you and the entire staff for the truly stunning Woman's Place Number. It would seem to me only fair now to get out a mere man's number to capitalize Leon Whipple's suggestion concerning the limitation of man's sphere. I only hope that the issue will be thoroughly read by conservatives and calamity-howlers, so that they may glean hope and encouragement sufficient to want to keep up with the changing progress as regularly registered in The Survey.

New York IRA S. WILE, M.D.

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WHEN CHILDREN WORK

(*Continued from page* 402)

to make proper allowance for the extraneous factors and to render these data as truly comparable as possible. The magnitude of this task of measurement may be sensed from the fact that there are 571 tables reporting and analysing the results of the seven physical and eleven psychological tests.

The almost limitless possibilities of further examination and manipulation of the original data were reluctantly foregone by the director and her co-workers on account of the dearth of financial resources to carry the study farther. Data on the tests given to the working children are supplemented by and correlated with facts relating to their four years of industrial history. There is also additional information on the social status and family conditions of both groups. For fellow research workers in the field of psychology and social educational research, this material with its serviceable index will undoubtedly prove a happy hunting ground.

But what of final conclusions drawn? As has been intimated from the quotation above, those who want the brief, tabloid, categorical, easily remembered statement of results will find in this book little aid and comfort. Eighteen pages are necessary to set forth the guarded summarizing and interpretive statements, while thirteen more pages are necessary to indicate the relationship of the findings to current educational policies.

The temptation is strong to reprint here two summary tables which occupy only twenty-eight lines on page 545 and contain the essence of this massing of summarized facts regarding the measurements of the two groups. But the reviewer refrains out of deep respect for the careful interpretive work with which this table is buttressed in the text. To attempt summarization further than the author would indeed be rushing in where the scientific attitude pauses and moves with slow and measured tread. All the reviewer can do is to point out that here is a set of honestly and intelligently analysed facts on a subject highly significant and controversial in American life. Let him who prizes not an absolute but a highly elusive truth consult the book.

NEVA R. DEARDORFF

Children's Commission of Pennsylvania.

WISCONSIN—A SPLENDID NUISANCE

(*Continued from page* 360)

Commission or disloyal to the spirit of the child-labor law. I bear on my brow the scar of my personal belief in its principles. When I was nineteen years of age I worked in a southern cotton mill. I was in the whipping room when the foreman brought in a little girl. I jumped in between her and the descending whip. This is the mark of the butt. But I want to tell you, gentlemen, that before I came North, I gave that foreman the damndest licking that ever he got."

So it is with the people to whom the laws apply. Each resents any infringement upon his personal liberty. Organized labor is behind the laws, but there have been instances of labor leaders who resisted its application to their children. The permit is a nuisance—it is a splendid nuisance to everybody. It bothers the school, the state, often the church, the employer, sometimes the doctor and always the parent. But the general impression to everyone concerned is that the day upon which Lladyslaw Lamblot goes to work is an important day to the state and the nation.

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